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Abstract: Glacial geomorphological mapping of southern Alberta, Canada reveals landform assemblages that are diagnostic of terrestrial-terminating ice stream margins with lobate snouts. Spatial variability in the features that comprise the landform assemblages reflects changes in palaeo-ice stream activity and snout basal thermal regimes. Such changes are potentially linked to regional climate controls at the southwest margin of the Laurentide Ice Sheet. Palaeo-ice stream tracks reveal distinct inset sequences of fan-shaped flow sets indicative of receding lobate ice stream margins. These margins are demarcated by: a) large, often glacially overridden transverse moraine ridges, commonly comprising glacitectonically thrust bedrock; and b) smaller, closely spaced recessional push moraines and hummocky moraine arcs. The former southern margins of the Central Alberta Ice Stream constructed a complex glacial geomorphology comprising minor transverse ridges (MTR types 1-3), hummocky terrain (Types 1-3), flutings and meltwater channels/spillways. MTR Type 1 ridges likely originated through glacitectonic thrusting and have been glacial overrun and moderately streamlined. MTR Type 2 sequences are recessional push moraines similar to those developing at modern active temperate glacier snouts. MTR Type 3 ridges document moraine construction by incremental stagnation, because they occur in association with hummocky terrain. The close association of hummocky terrain with push moraine assemblages, indicates that they are the products of supraglacial controlled deposition on a polythermal ice sheet margin, where the Type 3 hummocks represent former ice-walled lake plains. The ice sheet marginal thermal regime switches indicated by the spatially variable landform assemblages in southern Alberta are consistent with palaeoglaciological reconstructions proposed for other ice stream lobate margins of the southern Laurentide Ice Sheet, where alternate cold, polythermal and temperate marginal conditions sequentially gave way to more dynamic and surging activity.

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# **Glacial geomorphology of terrestrial-terminating fast flow lobes/ice stream margins in the southwest Laurentide Ice Sheet**

David J.A. Evans, Nathaniel J.P. Young and Colm Ó Cofaigh

## Highlights

1. Landform assemblages indicative of terrestrial-terminating palaeo-ice streams.
2. Spatial variability in landforms reflects changing palaeo-ice stream thermal regime.
3. Hummocky terrain and push moraine associations indicate polythermal snouts.
4. Receding ice margins alternated between cold, polythermal and temperate conditions.

1    **Glacial geomorphology of terrestrial-terminating fast flow lobes/ice**  
2    **stream margins in the southwest Laurentide Ice Sheet**

3

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6

7    **Abstract**

8    Glacial geomorphological mapping of southern Alberta, Canada reveals landform assemblages  
9    that are diagnostic of terrestrial-terminating ice stream margins with lobate snouts. Spatial  
10    variability in the features that comprise the landform assemblages reflects changes in palaeo-ice  
11    stream activity and snout basal thermal regimes. Such changes are potentially linked to regional  
12    climate controls at the southwest margin of the Laurentide Ice Sheet. Palaeo-ice stream tracks  
13    reveal distinct inset sequences of fan-shaped flow sets indicative of receding lobate ice stream  
14    margins. These margins are demarcated by: a) large, often glacially overridden transverse  
15    moraine ridges, commonly comprising glacitectonically thrust bedrock; and b) smaller, closely  
16    spaced recessional push moraines and hummocky moraine arcs. The former southern margins of  
17    the Central Alberta Ice Stream constructed a complex glacial geomorphology comprising minor  
18    transverse ridges (MTR types 1-3), hummocky terrain (Types 1-3), flutings and meltwater  
19    channels/spillways. MTR Type 1 ridges likely originated through glacitectonic thrusting and  
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22    Type 3 ridges document moraine construction by incremental stagnation, because they occur in  
23    association with hummocky terrain. The close association of hummocky terrain with push  
24    moraine assemblages, indicates that they are the products of supraglacial controlled deposition  
25    on a polythermal ice sheet margin, where the Type 3 hummocks represent former ice-walled  
26    lake plains. The ice sheet marginal thermal regime switches indicated by the spatially variable  
27    landform assemblages in southern Alberta are consistent with palaeoglaciological  
28    reconstructions proposed for other ice stream lobate margins of the southern Laurentide Ice

29 Sheet, where alternate cold, polythermal and temperate marginal conditions sequentially gave  
30 way to more dynamic and surging activity.

31

32 **Key words:** terrestrial-terminating ice stream; push moraines; hummocky terrain; glaciectonic  
33 thrusting; controlled moraine; thermal regime; Laurentide Ice Sheet; palaeoglaciology

34

## 35 **1. Introduction and rationale**

36 The important role of ice streams in ice sheet dynamics has resulted in them becoming  
37 increasingly more prominent as a focus of multi-disciplinary research in process glaciology and  
38 palaeoglaciology. Ongoing research questions surround the issues of maintenance and  
39 regulation of ice flow, temporal and spatial patterns of activation/deactivation, large scale  
40 changes in flow regime, and potential linkages/responses to climate. Some insights into these  
41 questions are emerging from the studies of former ice sheet beds, but the focus of such research  
42 has been largely targeted at marine-terminating ice streams. Details on the marginal activity of  
43 terrestrially-terminating ice streams has only recently emerged from the study of the former ice  
44 streams of the southern Laurentide Ice Sheet, where it is clear that ice stream margins  
45 constructed lobate assemblages of moraines during deglaciation (Patterson 1997, 1998; Jennings  
46 2006; Evans et al. 2008, 2012; Ó Cofaigh et al. 2010).

47

48 The western plains of southern Alberta, southwest Saskatchewan and northern Montana contain  
49 a wealth of glacial landforms that has been previously widely employed in reconstructions of  
50 Laurentide Ice Sheet palaeoglaciology (Stalker 1956, 1977; Christiansen 1979; Clayton &  
51 Moran 1982; Clayton et al. 1985; Evans & Campbell 1992, 1995; Evans 2000; Evans et al.  
52 1999, 2006, 2008, 2012; Ó Cofaigh et al. 2010), while at the same time being central to  
53 conceptual developments in glacial geomorphology (e.g. Gravenor & Kupsch 1959; Stalker  
54 1960, 1973, 1976; Clayton & Cherry 1967; Bik 1969; Clayton & Moran 1974; Moran et al.  
55 1980; Kehew & Lord 1986; Tsui et al. 1989; Beaty 1990; Alley 1991; Evans 1996, 2003, 2009;  
56 Eyles et al. 1999; Mollard 2000; Boone & Eyles 2001; Clayton et al. 2008). Significant debate

57 has also been recently centred on alternative, subglacial megaflood interpretations of the  
58 landforms of the region (cf. Rains et al. 1993, 2002; Sjogren & Rains 1995; Shaw et al. 1996;  
59 Munro-Stasiuk & Shaw 1997, 2002; Munro-Stasiuk 1999; Beaney & Hicks 2000; Beaney &  
60 Shaw 2000; Beaney 2002; Shaw 2002, 2010; Clarke et al. 2005; Benn & Evans 2006; Evans et  
61 al. 2006; Evans 2010). Notwithstanding the volume of publications in support of a subglacial  
62 megaflood origin for much of the glacial geomorphology of the region, we here provide a  
63 landsystems approach to the interpretation of the glaciation legacy as it pertains to the Late  
64 Wisconsinan advance and retreat of the southwest Laurentide Ice Sheet in the context of the  
65 palaeo-ice stream activity demonstrated by Shetsen (1984), Evans et al. (1999; 2006, 2008,  
66 2012), Evans (2000) and Ó Cofaigh et al. (2010). This approach makes the assumption at the  
67 outset that subglacially streamlined bedforms and ice-flow transverse landforms are not the  
68 product of megafloods, an assumption soundly based in the arguments presented in a number of  
69 carefully reasoned ripostes (Clarke et al. 2005; Benn & Evans 2006; Evans et al. 2006) to the  
70 megaflood hypothesis. The latter have demonstrated that the western plains contain an  
71 invaluable record of palaeo-ice stream activity pertaining to the dynamics of terrestrially-  
72 terminating systems, wherein spatial and temporal patterns of ice stream operation within an ice  
73 sheet are recorded in the regional glacial geomorphology. This forms a contrast to the vertical  
74 successions of marine sediments that record the activity of marine-terminating ice streams in  
75 offshore depo-centres such as trough-mouth fans.

76

77 The overall aim of this research is to augment recent developments of the till sedimentology and  
78 stratigraphy of the western Laurentide Ice Sheet palaeo-ice stream imprints (Evans et al. 2012)  
79 with investigations of the landform signature of these terrestrially-terminating systems in  
80 southern Alberta (Fig. 1). This in turn facilitates the evaluation and reconstruction of the  
81 marginal dynamics of terrestrial palaeo-ice streams in the wider context. Specific objectives  
82 include: 1) the use of SRTM and Landsat ETM+ imagery and aerial photographs to map the  
83 glacial geomorphology of southern Alberta, with particular focus on the impact of the palaeo-ice  
84 streams/lobes proposed by Evans et al. (2008); and 2) the identification of diagnostic landforms

85 or landform assemblages (landsystems model) indicative of terrestrial-terminating ice stream  
86 margins and an assessment of their implications for reconstructing palaeo-ice stream dynamics.

87

## 88 **2. Study area and previous research**

89 The study area is located in the North America Interior Plains, specifically in the southern part  
90 of the province of Alberta in western Canada, between longitudes 110°-114°W and latitudes  
91 49°-52°N. It is bordered by the Rocky Mountain Foothills in the west, the Tertiary gravel-  
92 topped monadnocks of the Cypress Hills in the southeast and Milk River Ridge to the south  
93 (Fig. 1; Leckie 2006)). Geologically, the southern Alberta plains lie within the Western  
94 Canadian Sedimentary Basin, on a northerly dipping anticline known as the Sweet Grass Arch  
95 (Westgate, 1968). The Interior Plains in this area are composed of Upper Cretaceous and  
96 Tertiary sediments, which consist of poorly consolidated clay, silt and sand (Stalker, 1960;  
97 Klassen, 1989; Beaty, 1990). The preglacial and interglacial landscapes were dominated by  
98 rivers flowing to the north and northeast and which repeatedly infilled and re-incised numerous  
99 pre-glacial and interglacial valleys, with sediments ranging in age from late Tertiary/Early  
100 Quaternary (Empress Group) to Wisconsinan (Stalker 1968; Evans & Campbell, 1995). The  
101 Cypress Hills and Del Bonita Highlands of the Milk River Ridge formed nunataks during  
102 Quaternary glaciations (Klassen, 1989).

103

104 The striking glacial geomorphology of Alberta was primarily formed during the Late  
105 Wisconsinan by ice lobes/streams flowing from the Keewatin sector of the Laurentide Ice Sheet,  
106 which coalesced with the Cordilleran Ice Sheet over the high plains to form a southerly flowing  
107 suture zone marked by the Foothills Erratics Train (Stalker, 1956; Jackson et al., 1997, 2011;  
108 Rains et al., 1999; Dyke et al. 2002; Jackson & Little 2004). At its maximum during the late  
109 Wisconsinan, the ice flowed through Alberta and into northern Montana (Colton et al., 1961;  
110 Westgate, 1968; Colton and Fullerton, 1986; Dyke and Prest, 1987; Fulton, 1995; Kulig, 1996;  
111 Dyke et al., 2002; Fullerton et al., 2004a, b; Davies et al., 2006). Ice sheet reconstructions  
112 suggest that deglaciation from Montana started c.14 ka BP, and had retreated to the “Lethbridge



113 moraine” by c.12.3 ka BP, after which it receded rapidly to the north (Stalker 1977; Clayton and  
114 Moran, 1982; Dyke and Prest, 1987).

115

116 Mapping of the glacial geomorphology of southern and central Alberta (Stalker, 1960; 1977;  
117 Prest et al., 1968; Westgate, 1968; Shetsen, 1987, 1990; Fulton, 1995, Evans et al., 1999, 2006,  
118 2008) has enabled a broad identification of ice flow patterns and ice-marginal landform  
119 assemblages. Three prominent fast flowing ice lobes appear to have operated within the region  
120 and were identified as the “east”, “central” and “west lobes” by Shetsen (1984) and Evans  
121 (2000). Recently, Evans et al. (2008) suggested that the west and central lobes be referred to as  
122 the High Plains Ice Stream (HPIS) and Central Alberta Ice Stream (CAIS) respectively due to  
123 their connection to corridors of highly streamlined terrain which are interpreted as the imprint of  
124 trunk zones of fast ice flow (Fig. 1b). The CAIS has also been referred to as the “Lethbridge  
125 lobe” by Eyles et al. (1999), who highlighted that its margins were defined by the McGregor,  
126 Lethbridge and Suffield moraine belts. These moraine belts comprise landforms of various  
127 glacial origins, including thrust moraines, (Westgate, 1968; Stalker, 1973, 1976; Tsui et al.,  
128 1989; Evans, 1996, 2000; Evans & Rea, 2003; Evans et al., 2008), “hummocky terrain” (cf.  
129 Gravenor & Kupsch, 1959; Stalker, 1960; 1977; Shetsen, 1984, 1987, 1990; Clark et al., 1996;  
130 Munro-Stasiuk & Shaw, 1997; Evans et al., 1999, 2006; Evans 2003; Eyles et al. 1999; Boone  
131 & Eyles 2001; Johnson & Clayton 2003; Munro-Stasiuk & Sjogren, 2006) and recessional push  
132 moraines and/or controlled moraine (Evans et al. 1999, 2006, 2008; Evans 2003; Johnson &  
133 Clayton 2003). Glacially overridden and streamlined moraines also appear in the trunk zones of  
134 the fast glacier flow tracks (Evans et al. 2008), although their origins and ages remain to be  
135 elucidated. Localized case studies of large scale moraine mapping by Evans et al. (1999, 2006,  
136 2008) have identified a spatial variability that potentially reflects changing thermal regimes at  
137 the sheet margin in addition to surging activity during later stages of recession, similar to the  
138 trends identified by Colgan et al. (2003) in the northern USA.

139

140 During deglaciation of the region, numerous proglacial lakes developed in front of the receding  
141 lobate ice stream margins, resulting in the incision of numerous spillways (Christiansen 1979;

142 Evans, 2000). These spillways have been either cut through pre-existing preglacial valley fills or  
143 have created new flood tracks through the soft Cretaceous bedrock (Evans & Campbell 1995).  
144 As meltwaters decanted generally eastwards, they appear to have penetrated beneath the ice  
145 sheet margin in some places to produce subglacial meltwater channels (Sjogren & Rains 1995).  
146 This pattern of drainage was most likely enhanced by the northeasterly dip in the  
147 glacioisostatically depressed land surface beneath the receding ice sheet, although regional  
148 isobases have not been reconstructed for this region due to the lack of datable lake shorelines.

149

150 A complex stratigraphy of pre-Quaternary and Quaternary glacial and interglacial deposits  
151 exists in the study region (Stalker 1963, 1968, 1969, 1983; Stalker & Wyder 1983; Evans &  
152 Campbell 1992, 1995; Evans 2000). Of significance to this study are the extensive outcrops of  
153 glacial sediment relating to the last glaciation, which have been employed in  
154 palaeoglaciological reconstructions of ice streams and ice sheet marginal recession patterns by  
155 Evans (2000), Evans et al. (2006, 2008, 2012) and Ó Cofaigh et al. (2010; Fig. 1c). These  
156 studies have highlighted the marginal thickening of subglacial traction tills in association with  
157 individual ice streams/lobes, thereby verifying theoretical models of subglacial deforming layers  
158 (e.g. Boulton 1996a, b) beneath ice sheets.

159 The findings of the research reviewed above are assimilated in this study with new observations  
160 and data on the glacial landforms of the region in order to assess the regional imprint of ice  
161 stream marginal sedimentation. Local variations in the landform patterns in turn facilitate a  
162 better understanding of ice stream dynamics during the deglaciation of western Canada.

### 163 **3. Methods**

164 Glacial geomorphological mapping was undertaken by using three different aerial image  
165 sources, including the 2000 Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM), Landsat 7 Enhanced  
166 Thematic Mapper Plus (Landsat ETM+) and aerial photograph mosaics flown and compiled by  
167 the Alberta Government in the 1950s. The SRTM data have been used to create digital elevation  
168 models (DEMs) of the Alberta landscape. Several authors (e.g. Glasser & Jansson, 2005; Bolch

169 et al., 2005; Heyman et al., 2008) have used SRTM data for mapping geomorphology, but have  
170 all used it in conjunction with another data set such as Landsat 7 ETM+ and ASTER, because  
171 its resolution is not regarded as optimum for mapping exercises. Smith et al. (2006) have  
172 suggested that spaceborne sensors such as SRTM are not sensitive enough to map detailed  
173 morphology. Similarly, Falorni et al. (2005) have commented on a link between high  
174 topography and vertical accuracy errors within SRTM data sets. This implies that SRTM  
175 imagery will provide a good regional scale picture, yet where landforms exist at scales smaller  
176 than, or approaching, pixel resolution it is likely that they will not be visible, resulting in a  
177 generalized rather than a comprehensive map of the glacial geomorphology. Nonetheless, Ó  
178 Cofaigh et al. (2010) have used solely SRTM data to map ice streams in Saskatchewan and  
179 Alberta, yielding fine resolution details of subglacial bedforms and marginal moraines.

180 Global Mapper<sup>TM</sup> produced a smoothed, rendered pseudo-colour image of the SRTM data that  
181 could be manipulated to accentuate features, produce 3D images and change sun illumination  
182 angles. By vertically stretching the elevation data, it is possible to more easily identify  
183 landforms within the data set, providing that the exaggeration of morphology is acknowledged.  
184 Following the procedures of Smith and Clark (2005), multiple illumination angles were also  
185 used during mapping. The Global Mapper<sup>TM</sup> interface does not provide the ability to easily map  
186 the glacial geomorphology and so these manipulations were completed in Global Mapper and  
187 then exported as a GeoTIFF. Because GeoTIFFs provide only georeferenced raster imagery  
188 with no topographic information, the DEM manipulations were processed prior to GeoTIFF  
189 creation. The images were then opened in Erdas Imagine 9.0, a GIS package that enables easy  
190 mapping of the glacial landforms. In order to map these features, vector layers were created and  
191 placed on top of the exported GeoTIFFs.

192 An alternative method was employed to compare, verify and supplement the SRTM mapping.  
193 This involved the use of ENVI 4.3 software to open the SRTM data in a grey scale format;  
194 nearest neighbour sampling was used to correct for missing sample points and was  
195 automatically applied to the same missing data points when opening the images in Global  
196 Mapper. The files were then exported from ENVI as Bitmap Graphic files ‘.img’, which are

197 simply raster files that can carry both georeferenced and topographic information. This option  
198 was not available when exporting out of Global Mapper. These images were opened in Erdas  
199 Imagine 9.0 as relief shaded DEMs. The DEMs were manipulated in exactly the same manner  
200 as above, with sun illumination changes, vertical exaggeration and 3D profiling. In similar  
201 fashion to the above method, vector files were overlaid on the DEMs to map the landforms. The  
202 results were then compared to the mapping performed from the GeoTIFFs.

203 Additional geomorphological mapping was conducted through interpretation of the high  
204 resolution Landsat ETM+ panchromatic band (band 8: 0.52-0.90  $\mu\text{m}$ ) images. A mosaic of 13  
205 scenes provided full coverage of the field site. These were downloaded from the GeoBase  
206 website (<http://www.geobase.ca/geobase/en/index.html>) overseen by the Canadian Council on  
207 Geomatics (CCOG). All images were in GeoTIFF format, and were georeferenced with the  
208 North American datum of 1983 (NAD83), corresponding to the Universal Transverse Mercator  
209 (UTM) projection, UTM Zone 12 for Alberta. The images were opened in Erdas Imagine 9.0  
210 and overlaid with the same vector layers that were used to map the DEMs. This allowed first  
211 order verification of the SRTM interpretations and the mapping of additional features.

212 The SRTM and Landsat ETM+ mapping is at a scale appropriate to the identification of regional  
213 scale landform patterns, including subglacial bedform flowsets and cross-cutting lineations  
214 (Clark 1999). Once identified, flowsets were mapped by drawing flowlines orientated parallel to  
215 the lineation direction. Where possible, quantitative analyses examined average lineation length,  
216 orientation, elongation ratios (ER) and average distance between lineations, in order to identify  
217 any similarities or differences between flowsets. Such quantitative analyses of subglacial  
218 bedforms have been widely demonstrated to be critical in the reconstruction of palaeo-ice  
219 streams and their dynamics (e.g. Stokes & Clark, 2003a; Roberts & Long, 2005; Stokes et al.,  
220 2006; Storrar & Stokes, 2007).

221 Aerial photograph mosaics were utilized for large scale investigations into the landform record  
222 of the southern Alberta ice stream margins, specifically because the remote sensing methods did  
223 not have sufficient resolution. A series of ten, 1:63,360 (1 inch to one mile) aerial photograph  
224 mosaics captured in 1951 by the Alberta Department of Land and Forests were utilized for the

225 mapping of landforms associated with the recession of the Laurentide Ice Sheet margin,  
226 especially the CAIS of Evans et al. (2008), in southern Alberta. Landforms were mapped  
227 according to their morphometric characteristics prior to interpretation, although genetic terms  
228 were later used to identify features on the maps. Linear depositional features, both ice flow-  
229 parallel (flutings, eskers) and ice flow-transverse (major and minor ridges or moraines) were  
230 mapped as single lines representing their summit crests. In areas of “hummocky terrain” (*sensu*  
231 Benn & Evans 2010), the complexity and density of individual hummocks rendered the  
232 mapping of every mound inappropriate and hence the hummocky terrain is represented by black  
233 shading of the inter hummock depressions. This approach effectively illustrates the relative  
234 degrees of linear versus chaotic patterns.

#### 235 **4. Results of geomorphological mapping**

##### 236 **4.1 Regional palaeo-ice stream geomorphology: small scale mapping case studies of the** 237 **HPIS and CAIS tracks**

238 The glacial geomorphology of southern Alberta is dominated by the imprints of two fast ice  
239 flow or palaeo-ice stream tracks, which appear as corridors of smoothed topography (the HPIS  
240 and CAIS of Evans et al., 2008) bordered by lobate marginal landforms and inter-lobate/inter-  
241 stream hummocky terrain. Also, in the eastern part of the province, the subglacial bedforms and  
242 marginal moraines of Ó Cofaigh et al. (2010) 'Ice Stream 1' (“east lobe” of Shetsen 1984 &  
243 Evans 2000) terminate on the north slopes of the Cypress Hills. Previous work on regional  
244 mapping in Alberta by Evans et al. (2008) identified the fast flow tracks and various ice-flow  
245 transverse ridges, some of which were difficult to interpret due to the low resolution of the  
246 DEMs available at the time. Here we report on the comprehensive and systematic mapping and  
247 quantification of landforms in the HPIS and CAIS tracks (Figs. 1 & 2) based on higher  
248 resolution SRTM data and further developing the mapping of Ó Cofaigh et al. (2010; Fig. 1c).

249

250 The study area contains approximately 250 km of the total length of the HPIS (see Evans et al.  
251 2008 for details of entire ice stream track) and its width varies from around 50 km along the  
252 main trunk to 85 km across the lobate terminus. A total of 714 lineations were identified along

253 the CAIS and HPIS and together comprise seven individual flow-sets, although large areas of  
254 the smoothed corridors that demarcate the fast flow trunks do not contain terrain sufficiently  
255 strongly fluted to enable confident flowset mapping (Fig. 3). The main landforms in the HPIS  
256 trunk include at least five (Hfs\_1-5) different flow sets (Fig. 3), four of which (Hfs\_2-5) record  
257 marginal splaying or lobate flow within the HPIS towards the McGregor Moraine belt. The  
258 study area contains approximately 320 km of the total length of the CAIS, over which distance  
259 its width increases from 97 km to 160 km at its lobate margin (Figs. 2 & 3). One flow set  
260 (CAfs\_1) was identified along the CAIS trunk, and one (CAfs\_2) in its southeast corner (Fig.  
261 3), each flow set relating to different phases of ice stream flow.

262

263 Flow set Hfs\_4 contained the largest number of lineations (260) although all flow sets tended to  
264 display strong spatial coherency, and CAfs\_1 contained the largest lineation at 35km long (cf.  
265 Evans 1996). Due to the resolution of SRTM imagery no elongation ratios (ERs) could be taken,  
266 however, it is apparent that most lineations have ERs of greater than 10:1. The smallest  
267 examples were found in Hfs\_1 and the largest in CAfs\_1 (see Table 1 for flow set data).

268

269 Flow sets display distinct relationships with ice flow transverse ridges or hummocky terrain  
270 arcs, some of which were previously documented at low resolution by Evans et al. (2008).  
271 Extensive sequences of transverse ridges exist throughout the study area, not only in marginal  
272 settings as sharp crested features but also along the HPIS and CAIS flow corridors as smoothed  
273 or streamlined features (Figs. 2, 4-8). These ridges are loosely classified below as minor or  
274 major features according to their relative sizes.

275 Transverse ridges associated with the HPIS reveal a clear pattern of ice-marginal advance and  
276 recession. For example, flow sets Hfs\_4 and 5 terminate in zones of hummocky terrain and/or  
277 minor transverse ridges, demarcating lobate ice marginal positions which are compatible with  
278 the flow sets that terminate on their proximal sides (cf. Evans et al. 1999, 2006, 2008). The  
279 landform assemblage TR\_1 occupies approximately 100 km of the western half of the HPIS  
280 track and includes an extensive sequence of low amplitude (3-6 m high), inset and arcuate minor

281 transverse ridges (cf. Evans et al. 1999; Evans 2003; Johnson & Clayton 2003). These minor  
282 ridges appear to be draped over, or superimposed on two major ridges (Fig. 4). The summits of  
283 the two major ridges each comprise up to five component sub-ridges 10-15 m high and are  
284 overprinted by flutings, the most prominent relating to flow set Hfs\_5 (Fig. 4) which continues  
285 in a southeasterly direction to cover the area known as Blackspring Ridge (Munro-Stasiuk &  
286 Shaw 2002). A further extensive series of inset arcuate minor ridges (TR\_2) lies immediately  
287 south of the southernmost major ridge and, together with the TR\_1 sequence, has previously  
288 been interpreted by Evans et al. (1999) and Evans (2003) as a recessional push moraine  
289 sequence.

290 On the CAIS footprint, CAfs\_1 terminates north of the largest major transverse ridge in the  
291 study area (TR\_8; Fig 5) which displays a dual lobate front and is 70 km long and crosses most  
292 of the CAIS between the Bow and Oldman Rivers, with its eastern edge connecting to an area of  
293 hummocky terrain. The ridge is weakly asymmetric, with a steeper distal slope and its height  
294 gradually increases from west to east from 20 to 30 m. The centre of flow set CAfs\_1 is  
295 connected to TR\_8 via an esker complex (Evans 1996, 2000) that joins the ridge at its re-entrant  
296 or inflexion point (Figs. 2 & 5). Two sets of minor transverse ridges also occur in the area  
297 located between major ridge TR\_8 and the southern end of flow set CAfs\_1 (Figs. 5 & 6).  
298 Assemblage TR\_6 comprises broad, shallow ridges superimposed with numerous discontinuous,  
299 narrow and sharp ridges (Fig. 6). These have previously been interpreted as glacitectonic thrust  
300 ridges by Evans and Campbell (1992) and Evans (2000) based upon field exposures displaying  
301 deformed Cretaceous bedrock overlain by till. Assemblage TR\_7 includes only the narrow,  
302 sharp ridges, which appear to be continuous with those in TR\_6 but occupy proglacial/spillway  
303 flood tracks previously mapped by Evans (1991, 2000) and therefore have most likely been  
304 accentuated by fluvial erosion.

305 Further north in the CAIS footprint, it is apparent that CAfs\_1 starts immediately down flow of  
306 a streamlined major transverse ridge complex (TR\_5; cf. Evans 1996; Evans et al. 2008),  
307 comprising three parallel subsets of ridges rising up to 30 m above the surrounding terrain (Fig.  
308 8A). In detail the sequence is composed of 40 ridges, ranging from 1-4 km in length and up to 5

309 m high. Other transverse ridges in this area include a cluster of inset minor ridges (TR\_3), 30  
310 km long and 10 – 20 m high and with crest wavelengths of 500 - 1000 m and bordered by  
311 hummocky terrain to the east, west and south. Individual ridges within the sequence are only a  
312 few kilometres in length. To the north west of TR\_3 are several large ridges set within and  
313 dominating an area of hummocky terrain (TR\_4). The ridge crests are 10 km long and stand up  
314 to 20 m above the surrounding hummocks. These large transverse ridge complexes are strongly  
315 asymmetric, with steeper north-facing or proximal slopes.

316 In the extreme south of the study area, on the preglacial drainage divide that was located  
317 between the Cypress and Sweet Grass Hills (Westgate, 1968) and 150 m above the Pakowki  
318 Lake depression (Fig. 8D), flow set CAfs\_2 is located on the down ice side of major ridge  
319 assemblage TR\_10, whose summit comprises a series of prominent and closely spaced, sharp  
320 crested transverse ridges (Fig. 7) which decline in height from 20 to 5 m and wavelength from 1  
321 km - 250 m from west to east. The flow set CAfs\_2 appears to be superimposed on a small area  
322 of ridges in the centre of TR\_10, but elsewhere the ridges do not appear streamlined on this  
323 imagery. Further details of the smaller transverse ridges on TR\_10 and the extent of flutings are  
324 presented in the next section based upon aerial photograph mapping.

325 Ridge complex TR\_10 is separated from TR\_8, located 130 km to the north, by a wide zone of  
326 minor transverse ridges, including the “Lethbridge Moraine” of Stalker (1977), which has been  
327 developed on the northern slopes of Milk River Ridge and in the Milk River drainage basin.  
328 Immediately south of the Lethbridge Moraine lies a 45 km wide and 150 km long arc of low  
329 amplitude, minor transverse ridges (TR\_9; Fig. 2b), associated with numerous ridge-parallel  
330 meltwater channels and coulees (Fig. 8E). This landform assemblage has been mapped at  
331 greater detail using aerial photographs and is reviewed in the next section as a landsystem  
332 indicative of lobate terrestrial ice stream margins.

333 Two further sets of minor transverse ridges (TR\_11 & TR\_12) are located at the south west  
334 corner of Ó Cofaigh et als. (2010) ‘Ice Stream 1’. These landforms record the incursion of the  
335 “east lobe” onto the northern slopes of the Cypress Hills and against the east side of the Suffield  
336 Moraine (Fig. 2).



337 Hummocky terrain covers a large proportion of the study area and defines the margins of  
338 palaeo-ice stream/lobe tracks (cf. Evans 2000; Evans et al. 2008). It occurs primarily between  
339 the smoothed fast ice flow corridors (Fig. 8B) but also along the southern margin of the CAIS  
340 (Figs. 2 & 9). The SRTM and Landsat ETM+ imagery reveals a pattern of hummocky terrain  
341 that is similar to that depicted by Prest et al. (1968), Shetsen (1987, 1990), Clark et al. (1996)  
342 and Evans (2000). Detailed mapping of the landforms that occur in the hummocky terrain belts,  
343 particularly in the McGregor Moraine (Fig. 9), has previously revealed that they comprise areas  
344 of linear to chaotic hummock chains interspersed with minor ridges, interpreted by Evans (2000,  
345 2009) and Evans et al. (2006) as a landform imprint of glacier margins that alternated between  
346 polythermal and temperate in nature during recession. Significantly in this respect, hummocky  
347 terrain bands (Stalker's 1977 "Lethbridge Moraine") run continuously from the edge of  
348 Blackspring Ridge across the CAIS marginal area up to and around the Cypress Hills. In plan  
349 form the bands demonstrate a strong lobate pattern and run parallel to intervening belts of  
350 transverse ridges, even though they internally consist of chaotic hummocks. The SRTM data  
351 reveal that the hummocky terrain and associated minor ridges are superimposed on larger  
352 physiographic features (Fig. 9a), which are likely representative of remnant uplands in the  
353 preglacial land surface (Fig. 1c; cf. Leckie 2006). The details of the hummocky terrain and  
354 associated minor ridges are presented at larger scale in the next section through a case study of  
355 the CAIS ice-marginal landsystem.

356

357 Eskers are prominent on the small scale imagery throughout the study area as narrow winding  
358 ridges, but resolution constraints allowed the identification of only the largest features. Future  
359 research will concentrate on the mapping of eskers at a much higher resolution using aerial  
360 photography and ground survey. The largest esker identified in this study was 45 km long and  
361 situated along Hfs\_4 (Fig. 10). Further south, a sequence of prominent eskers is situated along  
362 the centre of the HPIS corridor, particularly in association with Hfs\_5 (Figs. 2 & 4), forming a  
363 40 km long network running parallel to lineation direction. Another prominent network of  
364 eskers is located along the eastern edge of Lake Newell and emerges 20 km south of CAfs\_1  
365 and terminates just south of Lake Newell at the inflexion point of the dual-lobate ridge TR\_8

366 (see above; Fig. 5; cf. Evans 1996, 2000). Additional eskers were identified along the centre and  
367 eastern half of the CAIS.

368

#### 369 **4.2 Ice stream/lobe marginal landsystem: large scale mapping case study of the CAIS**

370 Although ice flow transverse ridges have been identified at a regional scale, as described above  
371 (Figs. 2, 4-8), landform mapping from aerial photographs in combination with the SRTM data  
372 (Fig. 11) reveals a complex glacial geomorphology at larger and more localized scales,  
373 comprising minor transverse ridges, hummocky terrain, flutings and meltwater  
374 channels/spillways. These features have been developed on a land surface characterized by  
375 Tertiary gravel-capped monadnocks (e.g. Del Bonita uplands/Milk River Ridge, Cypress Hills)  
376 and substantial depressions related to long term drainage networks (e.g. Pakowki Lake  
377 depression). Previous research has investigated the nature and origins of minor transverse ridges  
378 at the margins of the HPIS and CAIS in the McGregor Moraine belt, concluding that spatial  
379 variability in morphology (controlled moraine to push moraine) likely reflects changes in the  
380 basal thermal regime of the ice sheet margin during recession (Evans et al. 2006; Evans 2009).  
381 In order to test this hypothesis, the minor transverse ridge assemblages that demarcate the  
382 receding lobate margins of the CAIS are now analysed in detail.

383 Transverse ridges are aligned obliquely to former ice flow and are in places contiguous with  
384 bands of hummocky terrain, forming large arcuate bands and thereby allowing the regional  
385 lobate pattern of ice stream marginal deposition to be mapped (see above). At larger scales the  
386 transverse ridges display significant variability in form and thereby inform a higher resolution  
387 palaeoglaciology. The majority of transverse ridges are located to the south and south-east of  
388 the Lethbridge Moraine and Etzikom Coulée and the most extensive sequences lie directly south  
389 of Crow Indian Lake, Verdigris Coulee and south east of Pakowki Lake (Fig. 11), where they  
390 document the early recessional phases of the CAIS margin. Within the CAIS marginal setting  
391 three types of minor transverse ridge sets are identified and classified as MTR Types 1-3 (Figs.  
392 12-15). Additionally, three types of hummocky terrain form are recognized and classified as  
393 Types 1-3 (Figs. 16 & 17).

394

395 MTR Type 1 have largely symmetrical cross profiles and consistent wavelengths (Fig. 12),  
396 occur only in the south east corner of the CAIS margin on the TR\_10 ridge complex (Figs. 2, 7  
397 & 11) and are large enough to be identified in the regional mapping using the SRTM data (Fig.  
398 7). Because of its ripple-like appearance in plan form, the TR\_10 ridge complex has been  
399 interpreted by Beaney and Shaw (2000) as an erosional surface scoured by subglacial  
400 megaflood waters. Our large scale mapping reveals that the complex ridge TR\_10 comprises  
401 three sub-sets of component ridges (Fig. 13). Ridge Set 1A comprises large sub-parallel ridges  
402 lying up ice and perpendicular to CAfs\_2, and characterised by long wavelengths and  
403 intervening hollows filled with numerous small lakes (Fig. 11 & 13). Aerial photographs also  
404 reveal that the ridges are more widely overprinted by flutings than was apparent from the SRTM  
405 image (Fig. 7). Ridge Set 1B lies parallel to Set 1A but is located adjacent to the more  
406 prominent flutings that comprise flow set CAfs\_2 and appears as very subtle, discontinuous and  
407 densely spaced ridges that have some resemblance to MTR Type 2 (see below). The ridges  
408 reach up to 1 km long and are no greater than 2 m high. Ridge Set 1C is located down ice of Set  
409 1A and just north of Set 1B (Figs. 11 & 13) and individual ridges are 1-3 km long and resemble  
410 the smaller ridges within Set 1A, with similar smooth crests and water filled depressions. They  
411 are conspicuous by their north-south orientation, which is approximately 45° offset from the  
412 CAfs\_2 lineament direction.

413

414 MTR Type 2 are characterized by low relief and sharp crested ridges with largely asymmetrical  
415 cross profiles and variable wavelengths; ridges often locally overlap or overprint each other and  
416 possess crenulate or sawtooth plan forms (Fig. 12; Evans 2003). They lie primarily on the flat  
417 terrain between Pakowki Lake and the MTR Type 1 ridges (Fig. 8D), south of Milk River (Fig.  
418 11 & 13) and are characterised by conspicuous ridge sets up to 5 m in high and with generally  
419 continuous crests (Fig. 14). The ridges located along the south east margin of Pakowki Lake  
420 extend for up to 15 km, but in general the ridges range from 1-5 km long. The ridges situated  
421 south of the Milk River (Fig. 11) are more subtle and smaller than those to the south east of

422 Pakowki Lake. In addition to this extensive area of MTR Type 2 ridges, isolated examples of  
423 the type occur throughout the study area.

424

425 MTR Type 3 are characterized by discontinuous, low relief and sharp crested ridges that are  
426 aligned parallel and contiguous with chains of hummocks to form continuous lines when viewed  
427 over large areas. Between the high points, strongly orientated depressions, often filled with  
428 ponds and occasionally containing isolated hummocks, accentuate the overall linearity (Figs. 12  
429 & 15). They are the most common ridge type located to the west of Pakowki Lake, and are most  
430 extensive just south of Etzikom Coulee and Verdigris Coulee (Fig. 11). Individual ridges and  
431 associated hummocks are more subtle than MTR Type 2, with smoothed crests and heights  
432 generally no greater than 3 m. They also show clear lobate form on both the regional and large  
433 scale geomorphology maps (Fig. 2 & 11), and are located on the inclined slope of the CAIS  
434 marginal area (Fig. 8A). Like MTR Type 2, the Type 3 ridges also demonstrate subtle  
435 overlapping or overprinting (Fig. 15a).

436

437 Hummocky terrain is the most common landform within the CAIS marginal zone, and contains  
438 a wide range of hummock types (Figs. 16-18). At large scales, hummock assemblages are  
439 chaotic and demonstrate little to no linearity but when viewed at smaller scales they exhibit  
440 curvilinear or lobate patterns aligned parallel to sequences of transverse ridges (Figs. 2 & 11).  
441 North of Etzikom Coulee several long thin hummocky terrain bands run parallel to transverse  
442 ridges and meltwater channels. The largest extends for 60 km from west of 112°0'0"W,  
443 between Etzikom and Chin Coulee eastwards to the north of Pakowki Lake (Fig. 11). This  
444 hummocky terrain forms part of the "Lethbridge Moraine" which extends from Lethbridge to  
445 the north slopes of the Cypress Hills (Fig. 2; Westgate, 1968; Bik, 1969; Stalker 1977).  
446 Hummocky terrain also occurs in the south west corner of the study area, where it wraps around  
447 the Del Bonita Highlands and along the Milk River Ridge. Close inspection of these hummocky  
448 terrain bands reveals three different types of hummock (Types 1-3; Fig. 17).

449 Type 1 hummocks form the majority of the hummocky terrain and consist of densely spaced,  
450 low relief hummocks with little or no orientation (Figs. 16 & 18). The hummocks vary  
451 significantly in size, up to 5 m in height and generally <30 m in diameter (Fig. 17). Their  
452 morphology varies from individual circular and oval shaped hummocks to interconnected larger  
453 hummocks with less rounded tops. Type 1 and Type 2 hummocks lie randomly juxtaposed with  
454 each other and make up 99% of the hummocky terrain bands. Numerous small ponds fill the  
455 depressions between the hummocks.

456 Type 2 hummocks are generally randomly juxtaposed with Type 1 but also form occasional  
457 larger zones within other hummocky terrain bands (Fig. 16c). They are characterised by circular  
458 mounds with a cylindrical, often water filled, hollow at their centre (Fig. 17). This creates a ring  
459 or “doughnut” shape that is noticeably different in morphology to Type 1 hummocks.  
460 Conspicuous ridges also occur within the larger zones of Type 2 hummocks (Fig. 18a). These  
461 ridges weave through the hummocks, showing no singular orientation, and occasionally make  
462 up parts of the rims of hummocks.

463 Type 3 hummocks are the largest of the hummock types, being up to 20 m high and 1 km wide  
464 (Fig. 17). They have a roughly cylindrical to oval plan form and are up to twice as high as the  
465 surrounding hummocky terrain. Some have large rims and all have a flat surface. They are the  
466 least common of the three hummock types but the most conspicuous. Type 3 hummocks are  
467 best developed and primarily located in the south west corner of the study area around the Del  
468 Bonita Highlands (Fig. 18a).

469

470 Flutings near the margin of the CAIS are located predominantly along the eastern portion of the  
471 Milk River and south and south east of Pakowki Lake, but also north of Tyrrell Lake (Fig. 11).  
472 They range from 1-9 km in length with an average of 2 km. Flutings located north and south of  
473 the Milk River clearly overprint MTR Type 1 (Figs. 11 & 13) at right angles and are less than 2  
474 m in amplitude, making them difficult to recognise on the ground (Westgate, 1968). The  
475 flutings that constitute flow set CAfs\_2 are notably larger than any other lineations in the CAIS  
476 marginal zone, individuals being up to 9 km long and 6 m high and the whole flow set covering

477 an area 30 km long and 5 km wide. As a result the areal photographs reveal at least double the  
478 amount of flutings compared to the SRTM data. This scale of resolution allows further  
479 assessment of fluting dimensions, including elongation ratios, which range from 12:1 up to 85:1  
480 along the CAfs\_2 with fluting length increasing in a down flow direction.

481

482 Four major spillways extend across the study area, including Forty Mile Coulée, Chin Coulée,  
483 Etzikom Coulée and Verdigris Coulée, and lie parallel to the transverse ridges, conforming to  
484 the lobate plan form displayed by the ice-marginal landform record (Fig. 11). They extend  
485 across the majority of the “Lethbridge Moraine” sequence as dominant features, reaching up to  
486 500 m wide and 60 m deep (Fig. 19). An extensive network of smaller channels situated north  
487 of Chin Coulée (Fig. 11 & 19) lie predominantly parallel but also perpendicular to the spillway.  
488 These shallow channels are up to 10 km long and 200 m wide (Fig. 19). Longer channels up to  
489 20 km long and 100 m wide are found to the north of Crow Indian Lake, dissecting the  
490 hummocky terrain band at right angles. Only a few eskers were identified and are located  
491 chiefly in the north east corner of the area mapped in Figure 11.

492

## 493 **5. Interpretations of geomorphology mapping**

### 494 **5.1 Smoothed corridors, lineations and flutings**

495 Smoothed “corridors” of terrain on the plains of western Canada have been previously  
496 interpreted as palaeo-ice stream tracks or footprints (Evans et al. 2008; Ó Cofaigh et al. 2010)  
497 based upon the geomorphological criteria proposed by Stokes and Clark (1999, 2001; Table 2).  
498 The “corridors” contain MSGL or flutings and are delineated by a change in smoothed  
499 topography, created by fast ice flow, to hummocky terrain associated with slow moving, cold  
500 based ice and stagnation (Dyke & Morris 1988, Stokes & Clark 2002, Evans et al. 2008; Evans  
501 2009; Ó Cofaigh et al. 2010). Similarly, we here compare the lineations and smoothed  
502 topography of southern Alberta to previously identified palaeo-ice streams (Patterson 1997,  
503 1998; Stokes and Clark, 1999, 2001; Clark and Stokes, 2003; Jennings, 2006) and to the  
504 forelands of contemporary ice streams on the Antarctic Shelf (Shipp et al., 1999; Canals et al.,  
505 2000; Wellner et al., 2001; Ó Cofaigh et al., 2002), and thereby substantiate proposals for the

506 former occurrence of the HPIS and CAIS in the southwest Laurentide Ice Sheet. The onset  
507 zones of both the HPIS and CAIS are unknown and mapping by Prest et al. (1968) and Evans et  
508 al. (2008) do not identify any clear convergent flow patterns. However, till pebble lithology data  
509 (Shetsen 1984) demonstrate a Boothia type (Dyke & Morris 1988) dispersal by the HPIS and  
510 CAIS. Based on the reconstructed flow sets and landforms it seems clear that both the HPIS and  
511 CAIS represent ‘time-transgressive’ ice streams (Clark and Stokes, 2003).

512

513 Topographic cross profiles (Fig. 8B) and topographic maps (Geiger 1967) reveal that the CAIS  
514 is a ‘pure’ ice stream and the HPIS a predominantly ‘topographic’ Ice stream (Clark and Stokes,  
515 2003). The HPIS traversed across the easterly sloping terrain of the High Plains (Hfs\_2-5; Fig.  
516 3), but Cordilleran and Laurentide ice coalescence during the LGM forced the HPIS to flow in a  
517 southeasterly direction, as highlighted by the different orientations of Hfs\_1 and Hfs\_2-5 (Fig.  
518 3). Additionally, the 90° shift of the HPIS between Hfs\_1 and 2 (Fig. 3) is positioned  
519 approximately where the Foothills Erratics train is located, which has been used to mark the  
520 location of ice sheet coalescence (Stalker, 1956; Jackson et al., 1997; Rains et al., 1999). The  
521 multiple flow-sets along the HPIS therefore document numerous small scale flow re-  
522 organisations during deglaciation controlled by lobation of the ice stream margin. Hfs\_5 (Fig.  
523 3) is composed of numerous lineations that on a small scale demonstrate strong spatial  
524 coherency. However, large scale mapping compiled by Evans et al. (2006) identifies cross  
525 cutting lineations which must have been formed during more than one flow event.

526

527 Few flow sets were identified along the CAIS track and a lack of obvious cross-cutting patterns  
528 hampers any identification of changing flow directions. However, the orientation of flow set  
529 CAfs\_1 appears to relate to lobate ice flow towards the dual lobate ridge TR\_8 (Figs. 3 & 5),  
530 indicating that TR\_8 could represent the maximum position of a re-advance during which flow  
531 set CAfs\_1 was aligned obliquely with the lobate ice margin. Transverse ridge sets TR\_6 and  
532 TR\_7 appear to represent later readvances by the CAIS lobe that terminated north of TR\_8. This  
533 would explain the streamlining of a major esker network by CAfs\_1 to the north of TR\_6 and  
534 TR\_7 and its preservation in a non-streamlined state to the south (Evans 1996, 2000), where it

535 documents the development of a significant subglacial/englacial drainage pathway at the  
536 junction of two ice flow units in the CAIS; the latter is indicated by the dual lobate TR\_8 ridge  
537 and the coincidence of the esker complex at the apex of the ridge re-entrant (Fig. 5; see *Section*  
538 *ii* below).

539

540 In the marginal zone of the CAIS in south and south east Alberta (Fig. 11), MSGL and smaller  
541 flutings overprint MTR Types 1 and 2, specifically to the south and south east of Lake Pakowki.  
542 Because the streamlining of the MTR is mostly only cosmetic, their construction and overriding  
543 was likely not related to initial advance of the ice sheet to its LGM limit but rather a localized  
544 re-advance of the ice sheet margin; potential candidates are the Altawan advance of Kulig  
545 (1996) and the Wild Horse advance of Westgate (1968). This advance impacted on the terrain  
546 between the Cypress Hills and the longitude of 112°W, approximately 15 km east of Del Bonita.  
547 The minor flutings in the area run parallel to flow set CAfs\_2 and so, based on their strong  
548 parallel coherency, are interpreted to represent the same flow event. Lineation length gradually  
549 increases from northwest to southeast, trending into several MSGLs within CAfs\_2 (Fig. 11).  
550 All measured ERs within the CAIS marginal area are greater than the 10:1 minimum threshold  
551 proposed by Stokes and Clark (2002) for fast flowing ice.

552

553 The locations of CAfs\_1 and 2 (Fig. 3) on the down ice side of bedrock highs that appear to  
554 have been glacitectonically thrust and stacked (see *Section iii* below) and at locations where the  
555 proglacial slope dips down ice (Fig. 8A & D), suggest that topography may have been a  
556 controlling factor in their production. Similar lineation occurrences on the down ice sides of  
557 higher topography are found within Hfs\_5 on Blackspring Ridge (Fig. 2; Munro-Stasiuk &  
558 Shaw 2002) and the Athabasca fluting field in central Alberta (Shaw et al., 2000), an  
559 observation also made by Westgate (1968), who further highlights the occurrence of the largest  
560 flutings in such settings. If this is a significant factor in lineation and MSGL production, it  
561 would explain why there are so few lineations along the CAIS where the regional slope  
562 predominantly dips up ice (Fig. 8A). This evidence is consistent with the groove ploughing  
563 theory for lineation production (Clark et al., 2003) whereby ice keels produced by flow over



564 bedrock bumps carve grooves in the bed and deform sediments into intervening ridges or  
565 flutings. The surface form of the northern end of the megafluting complex at the centre of  
566 CAFs\_1 is instructive in this respect in that it appears as a flat-topped ridge with grooves in its  
567 summit (Evans 1996, 2000).

568

## 569 **5.2 Transverse ridges**

570 A variety of large transverse ridges were initially identified on DEMs by Evans et al. (2008)  
571 who interpreted them as either overridden or readvance moraines based upon their morphology  
572 and some localized exposures, the latter indicating a glacitectonized bedrock origin. The higher  
573 resolution SRTM data used in this study facilitate a more detailed assessment of these forms.

574

575 The streamlining and lineation overprinting of the two major arcuate ridges within the TR\_1  
576 sequence (Figs. 2 & 4) document the southerly advance of the HPIS over the site after major  
577 ridge construction. The arcuate nature of the ridges indicates that they were constructed as ice  
578 marginal features and so likely record an earlier advance of the HPIS to this location. The two  
579 major ridges occur at a location where the bedrock topography rises 30-60 m above the  
580 surrounding terrain (Geiger, 1967) and are significantly different in morphology to the minor  
581 ridges that lie over, between and south of them (Fig. 2). Their size, multiple crests and location  
582 on a bedrock rise are compatible with glacitectonic origins, similar to numerous other examples  
583 in southern Alberta, where the Cretaceous bedrock is highly susceptible to disruption due to  
584 glacier advance (Bluemle & Clayton 1984; Aber et al., 1989; Aber & Ber 2007).

585

586 Similarly, in the east, ridge sets TR\_3 & 4 (Fig. 2) are locally known as the Neutral Hills and  
587 have been traditionally recognized as glacitectonic thrust block moraines (Moran et al. 1980;  
588 Aber & Ber 2007). Previous mapping in the area of TR\_3 by Kjearsgaard (1976) and Shetsen  
589 (1987) identified significantly fewer transverse ridges but did propose an ice thrust origin. Ice  
590 thrusting was also proposed by Kjearsgaard (1976), Shetsen (1987) and Evans et al. (2008) for  
591 ridge set TR\_4. Glacitectonic origins are also most likely for TR\_5 & 6 (Fig. 2), because they  
592 occur on bedrock highs (Fig. 8A) and hence are influenced by topographical controls (Tsui et al.

1989; Bluemle & Clayton 1984; Aber et al., 1989), comprise closely spaced, parallel and predominantly linear multiple ridge crests, and internally contain glactectonized bedrock (Evans & Campbell 1992; Evans 1996; Evans et al. 2008). The overall arcuate plan forms of both TR\_5 and TR\_6 also supports an ice-marginal origin. Based on this evidence both sets of ridges are interpreted as ice thrust ridges formed by compressive ice marginal flow (cf. Evans, 1996, 2000; Evans et al., 2008). A thin till cover situated on top of the ridges suggests that they are actually cupola hills (Aber et al. 1989; Benn & Evans 2010; Evans 2000) produced by the overridding CAIS margin (Evans, 2000). Ridge set TR\_7 is a locally fluvially modified part of sequence TR\_6 and so it is most likely that they share similar origins.

The large dual-lobate ridge (TR\_8) has previously not been identified and is hereafter named the “Vauxhall Ridge” after the nearest town. It is almost certainly ice marginal, based on its dual-lobate plan form, and lies down ice and perpendicular to CAfs\_1 and the subglacially streamlined Lake Newell esker complex (Fig. 5; Evans 1996), which suggests that it records the re-advance limit of the CAIS. The ridge also continues into hummocky terrain and transverse ridges to the east, which are therefore interpreted to have formed contemporaneously. The geomorphic expression of the Vauxhall Ridge provides few indicators as to its precise genetic origins, and so further investigation of sub-surface structure is required.

Ridge sets TR\_11 & 12 (Fig. 2) are interpreted as a single sequence of ridges formed at the margin of the “east lobe” or ‘Ice Stream 1’ of Ó Cofaigh et al. (2010). Extensive sections through the ridges show that they have been glactectonically thrust and stacked (Ó Cofaigh et al. 2010), indicating an ice thrust origin.

Similar glactectonic origins are proposed for some of the transverse ridges mapped at larger scales in the CAIS margin case study. Specifically, all three sub-types of the MTR Type 1 ridges of the CAIS marginal landsystem (TR\_10; Fig. 2) likely originated through glactectonic thrusting and have been overrun by a re-advancing ice margin. The largest ridges (Set A, Fig. 13) are overprinted with lineations and their tops have been smoothed by ice flow. The ridges

622 are composed of deformed bedrock (Beaney & Shaw 2000), an observation used to support a  
623 proglacial thrusting origin by Westgate (1968), Shetsen (1987) and Evans et al. (2008). Their  
624 location along the preglacial drainage divide suggests that topography was significant in their  
625 formation; glacier flow would have been compressive (Fig. 8D) and porewater pressures in the  
626 weak Cretaceous bedrock would have been elevated, a situation highly conducive to  
627 glacitectonism (Bluemle & Clayton 1984; Aber et al. 1989; Tsui et al. 1989). Although a  
628 glacitectonic origin is the most appropriate interpretation for ridge Type 1A, MTR Types 1B  
629 and 1C display more subtle characteristics that hamper confident process-form interpretations.  
630 Type 1B ridges (Fig. 13) have been heavily modified by glacier re-advance and are barely  
631 distinguishable in the landform record. Their orientation parallel to Type 1A ridges suggests  
632 that they formed during the same advance and therefore possibly by the same mechanism,  
633 although initial relief was modest. Type 1C ridges are very similar in form to Type 1A ridges  
634 but have been significantly modified into more subtle and smoothed features. Based on their  
635 similar morphology and location on the preglacial divide they are also interpreted as overridden  
636 thrust ridges.

637

638 MTR Type 2 sequences (Fig. 12), primarily located east and south east of Pakowki Lake and  
639 south of the Milk River (Figs. 8D, E & 11), display an inset (en echelon) pattern that closely  
640 resembles that of push moraines presently developing at active temperate glaciers, for example  
641 at Breiðamerkurjökull and Fjallsjökull in Iceland (Price 1970; Sharp 1984; Boulton 1986;  
642 Matthews et al. 1995; Krüger 1996; Evans & Twigg 2002; Evans 2003; Evans & Hiemstra  
643 2005). These modern analogues have been used by Evans et al. (1999, 2008) and Evans (2003)  
644 to support the interpretation of the whole sequence of transverse ridges within the CAIS  
645 marginal area as recessional push moraines, a more specific genetic assessment than the  
646 previous conclusions of Westgate (1968) that the landforms represented “washboard moraine”,  
647 “linear disintegration ridges” and “ridged end moraine”. A recessional push moraine origin  
648 implies that the CAIS margin must have been warm based during landform construction,  
649 reflecting seasonal climate variability (Boulton 1986; Evans & Twigg 2002; Evans 2003).

650

651 The origins of MTR Type 3 are indicated by the style of hummock (see section *iv* below) visible  
652 within the linear assemblages that make up the component ridges. The individual hummocks  
653 that predominate within MTR Type 3 vary between Type 1 and Type 2 hummocks, which are  
654 interpreted below as having formed supraglacially. This implies that significant englacial debris  
655 concentrations characterized the margin of the CAIS at the time of MTR Type 3 formation.  
656 Debris provision could have been related to either englacial thrusting and stacking of debris rich  
657 ice due to compressive flow against the reverse regional slope (Fig. 8A; Boulton, 1967, 1970;  
658 Ham & Attig, 1996; Hambrey et al., 1997, 1999; Glasser & Hambrey, 2003) or incremental  
659 stagnation (Eyles, 1979; 1983; Ham & Attig, 1996, Patterson, 1997; Jennings, 2006; Clayton et  
660 al., 2008; Bennett & Evans 2012). In the case of incremental stagnation, the moraine linearity  
661 would be related to either the high preservation potential of controlled moraine (Gravenor &  
662 Kupsch, 1959; Johnson & Clayton, 2003), an unlikely scenario based upon modern analogues of  
663 controlled moraine development (Evans, 2009; Roberts et al., 2009), or active recession of a  
664 debris charged ice margin brought about by warm polythermal conditions and accentuated by  
665 upslope advances (Evans 2009). This is supported by the fact that, although MTR Type 3  
666 sequences are composed of contiguous linear hummock tracks and discontinuous ridges (Figs.  
667 11, 12, 14 & 15), small scale mapping (Fig. 2) shows clear inset sequences of MTR Types 2 and  
668 3, typical of active recession of both the CAIS and HPIS margins in southern Alberta (note that  
669 the minor ridges in TR\_1 are MTR Types 2 & 3) based upon modern analogues of active  
670 temperate and warm polythermal glaciers (Boulton 1986; Evans & Twigg 2002; Colgan et al.  
671 2003; Evans 2003, 2009; Evans & Hiemstra 2005).

672

### 673 **5.3 Hummocky terrain**

674 Type 1 hummocks represent the largest proportion of hummocky terrain within the CAIS  
675 marginal area. Concentrations of Type 1 hummocks occur around the Del Bonita highlands and  
676 in the lobate bands of hummocks north of Etzikom Coluée (Fig. 11), also known as the  
677 Lethbridge moraine (Stalker, 1977). Previous work in Alberta (Gravenor & Kupsch, 1959;  
678 Stalker, 1960; Bik, 1969) has identified that a significant proportion of Type 1 hummocks are  
679 composed of till. A supraglacial origin for Type 1 hummocks can be supported by simple form

680 analogy (cf. Clayton, 1967; Boulton, 1967, 1972; Parizek, 1969; Clayton & Moran, 1974; Eyles,  
681 1979, 1983; Paul, 1983; Clayton et al., 1985; Johnson et al., 1995; Ham & Attig, 1996;  
682 Patterson, 1997, 1998; Mollard, 2000; Johnson & Clayton, 2003; Jennings, 2006), but their  
683 juxtaposition with active recessional moraines in lobate arcs of landform assemblages (Fig. 11  
684 & 16) suggests that they were not associated with widespread ice stagnation. Differential  
685 melting and supraglacial debris reworking by continuous topographic reversal can be invoked to  
686 explain the irregular shapes and sizes of the hummocks when viewed at larger scales, although  
687 subglacial pressing of the soft substrate at the margin of the CAIS, as proposed by Stalker  
688 (1960), Eyles et al. (1999) and Boone and Eyles (2001), could have been operating in the poorly  
689 drained conditions of the reversed proglacial slopes of the region (Klassen, 1989; Mollard  
690 2000). Nevertheless, the lobate arcuate appearance of Type 1 hummocks when viewed at  
691 smaller scales has a strong resemblance to the controlled moraine reported by Evans (2009) and  
692 the hummock assemblages along the southern Laurentide Ice Sheet margins described by  
693 Colgan et al. (2003) and Johnson and Clayton (2003) as their “Landsystem B”. The corollary is  
694 that, during early deglaciation, the edge of the CAIS was cold based and part of a polythermal  
695 ice sheet margin, beyond which there was a permafrost environment (Clayton et al. 2001;  
696 Bauder et al. 2005); several generations of ice wedge casts around the Del Bonita (Jan  
697 Bednarski, personal communication) and the Cypress Hills uplands (Westgate, 1968) verify  
698 ground ice development around the receding CAIS margin.

699

700 North of the CAIS marginal zone, Type 1 hummocks are extensive and well developed, and  
701 therefore have been the subject of numerous investigations (e.g. Stalker, 1960, Munro-Stasiuk  
702 and Shaw, 1997; Eyles et al., 1999; Boone and Eyles, 2001; Evans et al., 2006). Comparison of  
703 Figure 2 and existing maps (cf. Shetsen, 1984, 1987; Clark et al., 1996; Evans et al., 1999)  
704 shows that hummocky terrain mapping using SRTM data is capable of a high degree of  
705 replication. Due to its position between corridors of fast flowing ice lobes, the hummocks have  
706 been used to demarcate an ‘interlobate’ terrain by Evans et al. (2008), but the more generic term  
707 ‘hummocky terrain’ is preferred here. Nonetheless, the abrupt transition from smoothed  
708 topography (corridor) to hummocky terrain along the CAIS margin is interpreted as a change in

709 subglacial regime, and hence demarcates the flow path of the ice stream (cf. Dyke & Morris  
710 1988; Patterson 1998; Evans et al. 2008; Ó Cofaigh et al. 2010). Glacitectonic evidence  
711 identified along the north shore of Travers Reservoir, demonstrates that some linear hummocks  
712 and low amplitude ridges in hummocky terrain are in fact thrust block moraines (Evans et al.,  
713 2006) formed by ice flow from the north east, indicative of CAIS advance into the area after the  
714 HPIS had receded. The input from the HPIS is demarcated by flow sets Hfs\_4 and 5 (Fig. 3)  
715 which flow into the ‘McGregor moraine’. Detailed investigation of this area by Evans et al.  
716 (2006) reveals that the hummocky terrain, when viewed at large scale, comprises inset  
717 recessional push ridges and associated arcuate zones of flutings similar to modern active  
718 temperate glacial landsystems (Evans et al. 1999; Evans & Twigg, 2002; Evans 2003; Evans et  
719 al. 2006; Evans et al. 2008). The hummocky terrain therefore represents a less linear set of ice-  
720 marginal landforms to those with which it is laterally continuous in the HPIS trunk immediately  
721 to the west (Fig. 2). The reconstructed ice margins show that ice was flowing into the area from  
722 the northwest (Evans et al., 2006), and so most likely represent the termination of flow set  
723 Hfs\_5.

724

725 Type 2 hummocks resemble the “doughnut hummocks” or “ring forms” that are common to  
726 many deglaciated ice sheet forelands in mid-latitude North America and Europe (e.g. Gravenor  
727 & Kupsch 1959; Parizek 1969; Aartolahti 1974; Lagerbäck 1988; Boulton & Caban 1995;  
728 Mollard 2000; Colgan et al. 2003; Knudsen et al. 2006). Johnson and Clayton (2003)  
729 demonstrate that doughnut hummocks across North America are predominantly composed of  
730 clayey till, which they suggest is important to hummock formation. Several genetic models have  
731 been proposed, all of which regard the landforms as indicative of a ‘stagnant glacial regime’  
732 (Knudsen et al. 2006), but they remain poorly understood. Importantly, like Type 1 hummocks,  
733 the fact that Type 2 hummocks are often contiguous with push ridges appears to contradict the  
734 stagnation model. Because Type 2 hummocks are contiguous with not only recessional push  
735 moraines but also Type 1 and Type 3 hummocks (see below), which are supraglacial in origin,  
736 it follows that doughnut hummocks most likely also originated as supraglacial debris  
737 concentrations (controlled moraine) in a polythermal ice sheet margin. Alternative origins for

738 Type 2 hummocks include proglacial blow-out features created by over-pressurized  
739 groundwater (Bluemle 1993; Boulton & Caban 1995; Evans et al 1999; Evans 2003, 2009) and  
740 subglacial pressing of saturated sediments (Gravenor & Kupsch 1959; Stalker 1960; Aartolahti  
741 1974; Eyles et al. 1999; Mollard 2000; Boone & Eyles 2001), although the latter would not  
742 produce linear chains of hummocks lying between arcuate push moraine ridges.

743

744 The conspicuous ridges that occur in association with Type 2 hummocks (Fig. 18a) and are  
745 often continuous with hummock rims must document the more extensive operation of the rim  
746 forming process. This could involve either: a) the elongation of hollows between controlled  
747 moraines during melt-out, giving rise to preferential deposition in linear chains of ice-walled  
748 channels or supraglacial trough fills (Thomas et al. 1985); and/or b) occasional ice-marginal  
749 pushing during the overall downwasting of a debris-charged snout upon which controlled  
750 moraine was developing (cf. Evans 2009; Bennett et al. 2010; Bennett & Evans 2012).

751 Type 3 hummocks closely resemble the ice-walled lake plains of the southern Laurentide lobes  
752 in Minnesota, North Dakota, Wisconsin, Michigan and southern New England (Colgan et al.,  
753 2003; Clayton et al., 2008) and throughout Europe (Strehl, 1998; Knudsen et al., 2006). Strong  
754 evidence presented by Clayton et al. (2008) demonstrates that ice-walled lake plains cannot be  
755 of subglacial origin based on molluscs present within the enclosed deposits. Their presence  
756 therefore is unequivocally associated with supraglacial origins, the corollary of which is that  
757 any adjacent hummocky terrain is also of supraglacial origin (Johnson & Clayton 2003; Clayton  
758 et al., 2008). The large sizes of the Type 3 hummocks can be explained by their continued  
759 development after ice recession due to a thick insulating debris cover (Attig, 1993; Clayton et  
760 al., 2001; Attig et al., 2003; Clayton et al., 2008), hence also their absence from the active  
761 recessional imprint of the CAIS marginal area. The close association between ice-walled lake  
762 plain development and permafrost (Attig, 1993; Clayton et al., 2001; Attig et al., 2003) is also  
763 evident within the CAIS marginal area, whereby the largest ice-walled lake plains are located  
764 around the Del Bonita Highlands where permafrost features have also been recorded  
765 (Bednarski, personal communication).

766

## 767 **6. Discussion**

### 768 **6.1 Overview and chronology**

769 The regional glacial geomorphology of southern Alberta primarily records the deglacial  
770 dynamics of the south west margin of the Laurentide Ice Sheet, within which three major ice  
771 streams (HPIS, CAIS of Evans et al. 2008 and “Ice Stream 1” or “east lobe” of Ó Cofaigh et al.  
772 2010 and Shetsen 1984 respectively) coalesced and flowed against the north-easterly dipping  
773 topography, thereby damming proglacial lakes and diverting regional drainage during advance  
774 and retreat (Shetsen 1984; Evans 2000; Evans et al. 2008). In combination with the available  
775 deglacial chronology for the region (cf. Westgate 1968; Clayton & Moran 1982; Dyke & Prest  
776 1987; Kulig 1996) the ice-marginal landforms are now used to chart ice sheet retreat patterns  
777 (Fig. 20).

778

779 Although the existing chronology is not well constrained by absolute dates, it is appropriate to  
780 acknowledge Westgate’s (1968) five distinct morphostratigraphic units (Elkwater drift; Wild  
781 Horse drift; Pakowki drift; Etzikom drift; Oldman drift), each of which has been taken to  
782 represent a re-advance limit in south east Alberta based on petrography and morphology. The  
783 Elkwater drift relates to the upper ice limit on the Cypress Hills. The Wild Horse drift extends  
784 into northern Montana where it terminates at a large 15-20 m transverse ridge sequence and is  
785 interpreted to represent the final advance of the CAIS margin into Montana sometime around 14  
786 ka BP. The Pakowki drift (Fig. 20) is marked by the outer extent of the push moraines to the  
787 south east of Lake Pakowki and runs along the northern tip of the Milk River and north around  
788 the Cypress Hills (Westgate, 1968; Bik, 1969; Kulig, 1996). Therefore, all landforms to the  
789 south of this point were formed during an earlier advance, most likely the Altawan advance  
790 (15ka BP; Kulig, 1996). The Pakowki advance (Fig. 20), not recognized in Christiansen’s  
791 (1979) or Dyke and Prest’s (1987) deglacial sequences, most likely occurred between 14-13.5  
792 ka BP (Kulig, 1996) and relates to Clayton and Moran’s (1982) Stage F - H. The Etzikom drift



limit is interpreted as the “Lethbridge moraine” limit of Stalker (1977) and is marked in Figure 20 by the broad band of hummocky terrain just north of Etzikom Coulee. This ice margin maintained its position along the Lethbridge moraine until around 12.3ka BP (Stage I, Clayton and Moran, 1982; Dyke and Prest, 1987; Kulig, 1996). The Oldman drift limit (Fig. 20) is located just south of the Oldman River. Importantly, the correlation between the thrust ridges at Travers Reservoir (Evans et al., 2006) and the Oldman limit suggests that they were formed during this re-advance episode. The corollary is that the HPIS had already receded further to the north. This re-advance (Stage J – L, Clayton and Moran, 1982) most likely occurred just after 12ka BP. Based on the regional geomorphology map (Fig. 2) it is suggested that a further re-advance occurred (Vauxhall advance), the limit of which is marked by the Vauxhall Ridge and must have occurred sometime after 12ka BP. Evans (2000) suggests that the CAIS margin had receded to the north of the study area by 12ka BP. Based on the Vauxhall advance evidence, the CAIS must have receded later than that proposed by Evans (2000). Importantly, Dyke and Prest (1987) place the ice sheet margin to north of the study area by this time, and so this suggests that the CAIS may have remained within southern Alberta for longer than previously thought. The Vauxhall ridge is interpreted to mark the final re-advance of the CAIS after which time it receded rapidly (Evans, 2000). The exact timing of the HPIS and east lobe retreat are unclear, but it seems likely that the HPIS had receded somewhere north of Bow River by 12ka BP.

811

## 812 **6.2 Landsystem model of the terrestrial terminating ice stream margin**

The juxtaposition of the moraine types of southern Alberta is illustrated in Figure 21a and used in Figure 21b to construct a conceptual landsystem model for terrestrial terminating ice stream margins. This model implies that terrestrial ice stream margins are subject to changing thermal conditions and dynamics, often at small spatial and temporal scales. Various parts of the ice stream beds of western Canada have been interpreted previously as manifestations of specific landsystems based upon similarities with modern analogues; for example, Evans et al. (1999, 2008) have identified an active temperate landform signature in the HPIS imprint and a surging signal in the Lac la Biche ice stream. Additionally, switches in basal thermal regime have been invoked by Evans (2009) to explain inset suites of different moraine types associated with the

822 recession of the HPIS margin in the McGregor Moraine belt. Thermal regime switches and  
823 intermittent surges during recession have been proposed elsewhere in reconstructions of  
824 southern Laurentide Ice Sheet palaeoglaciology. For example, Colgan et al. (2003) identify  
825 three characteristic landsystems which they interpret as the imprint of an ice lobe with changing  
826 recessional dynamics. The outermost landsystem of a drumlinized zone grading into moderate-  
827 to high-relief moraines and ice-walled lake plains represents a polythermal ice sheet margin  
828 with sliding and deforming bed processes giving way to a marginal frozen toe zone. Inboard of  
829 this landsystem lie fluted till plains and low-relief push moraines, a landsystem indicative of  
830 active temperate ice recession. This in turn gives way to a landsystem indicative of surging  
831 activity. At a regional scale, Evans et al. (1999, 2008) and Evans (2009) have promoted similar  
832 temporal and spatial variability in ice stream landform imprints in Alberta, but the large scale  
833 mapping reported here allows a finer resolution record of such changes to be elucidated for ice  
834 sheet margins during the early stages of deglaciation.

835

### 836 **6.3 Dynamics of the Alberta terrestrial terminating ice stream lobes**

837 The Alberta ice streams flowed over a substrate composed of Cretaceous and Tertiary  
838 sediments, consisting of poorly consolidated clay, sand and silt. The Cretaceous beds in  
839 particular are prone to glactectonic folding and thrusting due to a high bentonite content, which  
840 is reflected by the quantity and size of thrust features within southern Alberta. Additionally, the  
841 drainage conditions caused by swelling clays will have almost certainly created elevated  
842 porewater pressures and localized impermeable substrates, giving rise in turn to fast glacier flow  
843 (Clayton et al., 1985; Fisher et al., 1985; Klassen, 1989; Clark, 1994; Evans et al., 2008).  
844 Bedrock highs, many of which are controlled by residual Tertiary gravel caps (monadnocks),  
845 will likely have created resistance to ice flow (e.g. Alley, 1993; Joughin et al., 2001; Price et al.,  
846 2002; Stokes et al., 2007) and caused localised compression, highlighted by the presence of  
847 thrust ridges at such locations. Additionally, the reverse gradient of the easterly dipping bedrock  
848 surface will have initiated significant marginal compressive flow which also would have  
849 resulted in glactectonic disturbance and well developed controlled moraine on debris-charged  
850 snouts. The region is thereby an ancient exemplar of geologic setting exerting strong controls on

851 the location and flow dynamics of ice streams (Anandakrishnan et al., 1998; Bell et al., 1998;  
852 Bamber et al., 2006), although it is difficult to ascertain whether fast ice motion occurred  
853 through deformation or sliding or a combination of the two. Numerous till units and up ice  
854 thickening till wedges within southern Alberta (Westgate, 1968; Evans & Campbell, 1992;  
855 Evans et al., 2008, 2012) are consistent with the theory of subglacial deformation (Alley, 1991;  
856 Boulton, 1996a, b), although Evans et al. (2008) argue that the presence of large subglacial  
857 channels and thin tills overlying thin stratified sediments and shale bedrock along the CAIS  
858 trunk indicates that deformation was subordinate to sliding.

859

860 A clear change in landform assemblages from south to north along the axis of the CAIS  
861 documents a temporal change in ice stream/lobe dynamics. Initial advance of the CAIS was  
862 responsible for the glacitectonic construction and overriding of large transverse ridges in  
863 bedrock (cupola hills). The extent of modification or streamlining of these landforms decreases  
864 in a southerly direction, as illustrated by the superficial fluting of TR\_10 south of Lake  
865 Pakowki, which reflects the short duration of overriding by the CAIS. Long flutings to the south  
866 of TR\_10 record fast glacier flow or ice streaming when the margin of the CAIS lay in  
867 Montana. Although the dynamics of the CAIS during Laurentide Ice Sheet advance are difficult  
868 to reconstruct, the construction of large thrust moraines are most commonly associated with  
869 surging glacier snouts and therefore this mode of flow during advance cannot be ruled out.  
870 During deglaciation the dynamics of the CAIS switched from fast flow/streaming to steady state  
871 flow towards a lobate margin with a changing sub-marginal thermal regime. This is recorded by  
872 the arcuate bands of MTR Type 1 – 3 ridges and hummocky terrain located between the  
873 preglacial divide (Milk River Ridge) and the Bow River catchment. Specifically, the sequential  
874 south to north change from hummocky terrain to MTR Type 2 to MTR Type 3 in this area  
875 records a temporal switch in ice marginal characteristics, from cold polythermal to temperate  
876 and then to warm polythermal (cf. Colgan et al. 2003; Evans 2009). A similar switch in sub-  
877 marginal thermal characteristics has been proposed for the HPIS by Benn and Evans (2006) and  
878 Evans (2009) to explain a south to north change in moraine characteristics. Based upon the  
879 chronology of ice sheet recession presented in Figure 20, it appears that the switch to temperate

conditions occurred at approximately the same time in both the CAIS and HPIS, indicating a potential climatic control. A contrasting landform assemblage north of the Bow River basin documents a further change in CAIS dynamics, wherein overridden thrust moraines, megaflutings (CAfs\_1) and a fluted esker complex lie inboard of the Vauxhall Ridge. This assemblage is interpreted as the imprint of a fast flow/streaming event, a precursor to the surges that constructed thrust moraines (e.g. TR\_3) and crevasse-squeeze ridges to the north of the study area (Evans et al. 1999, 2008). Recession of the CAIS margin is demarcated between the surge limits by inset sequences of marginal and sub-marginal meltwater channels and spillways (Fig. 2).

## 7. Conclusions

Glacial geomorphological mapping from SRTM and Landsat ETM+ imagery and aerial photographs of southern Alberta has facilitated the identification of diagnostic landforms or landform assemblages (landsystems model) indicative of terrestrial-terminating ice stream margins with lobate snouts. Spatial variability in landform type appears to reflect changes in palaeo-ice stream activity and snout basal thermal regimes, which are potentially linked to regional climate controls at the southwest margin of the Laurentide Ice Sheet.

Small scale mapping case studies of the High Plains (HPIS) and Central Alberta (CAIS) palaeo-ice stream tracks reveal distinct inset sequences of fan-shaped flow sets indicative of receding lobate ice stream margins. The lobate margins are recorded also by large, often glacially overridden transverse moraine ridges, commonly constructed through the glacitectonic thrusting of bedrock, and smaller, closely spaced inset sequences of recessional push moraines and hummocky moraine arcs (minor transverse ridges). The locations of some MSGS on the down ice sides of high points on ice stream beds is consistent with a groove-ploughing origin for lineations, especially in the case of the megafluting complex at the centre of CAfs\_1 which appears as a flat-topped ridge with a grooved summit. During deglaciation the dynamics of the CAIS in particular switched from fast flow/streaming to steady state flow towards a lobate margin, which was subject to changing sub-marginal thermal regimes as recorded by the arcuate

909 bands of MTR Type 1 – 3 ridges and hummocky terrain located between the preglacial divide  
910 (Milk River Ridge) and the Bow River catchment.

911 Large scale mapping of the southern limits of the CAIS reveals a complex glacial  
912 geomorphology relating to ice stream marginal recession, comprising minor transverse ridges  
913 (MTR types 1-3), hummocky terrain (Types 1-3), flutings and meltwater channels/spillways.  
914 MTR Type 1 ridges likely originated through glacitectonic thrusting and have been glacial  
915 overrun and moderately streamlined. MTR Type 2 sequences are recessional push moraines  
916 similar to those developing at modern active temperate glacier snouts. MTR Type 3 ridges  
917 document moraine construction by incremental stagnation, because they occur in association  
918 with hummocky terrain. This localized close association of the various types of hummocky  
919 terrain with push moraine assemblages as well as proglacial permafrost features, indicates that  
920 they are not ice stagnation landforms but rather the products of supraglacial controlled  
921 deposition on a polythermal ice sheet margin, where the Type 3 hummocks represent former  
922 ice-walled lake plains.

923 The ice sheet marginal thermal regime switches indicated by the spatially variable landform  
924 assemblages in southern Alberta are consistent with palaeoglaciological reconstructions  
925 proposed for other ice stream lobate margins of the southern Laurentide Ice Sheet, where  
926 alternate cold, polythermal and temperate marginal conditions sequentially gave way to more  
927 dynamic and surging activity. The sequential south to north change from hummocky terrain to  
928 MTR Type 2 to MTR Type 3 within the Lethbridge Moraine and on the northern slopes of the  
929 Milk River ridge records a temporal switch in CAIS marginal characteristics, from cold  
930 polythermal to temperate and then to warm polythermal. This is similar to patterns previously  
931 identified for the HPIS at approximately the same time based upon the available regional  
932 morphochronology and hence indicates a potential regional climatic control on ice sheet  
933 marginal activity. To the north of the Lethbridge Moraine, the landform assemblage of the Bow  
934 and Red Deer river basins, comprising overridden thrust moraines, megaflutings (CAfs\_1) and a  
935 fluted esker complex lying inboard of the Vauxhall Ridge, records a later fast flow/streaming

936 event. This was the precursor to the later ice stream surges that constructed the large thrust  
937 moraines TR\_3 and TR\_4 and other surge-diagnostic landforms in central Alberta.

938

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942

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# 1308 **Figure captions**

1309 Figure 1: Location, bedrock topography and palaeo-ice stream maps of the study area: a)

1310 location maps, showing the province of Alberta, Canada and the study area outlined by  
1311 two boxes. The larger box covers the area depicted in Figure 3 and the smaller box the  
1312 area depicted in Figure 2; b) bedrock topography map, from The Geological Atlas of the  
1313 Western Canadian Sedimentary Basin (Alberta Energy and Utilities Board/Alberta  
1314 Geological Survey, 1994), including the locations of the CAIS and HPIS ice streams of  
1315 Evans et al. (2008). The map highlights the regional NNE dipping slope. The study area  
1316 is outlined by two boxes with the larger box representing Figure 3 and the smaller box  
1317 representing Figure 2; c) palaeo-ice stream map superimposed on the SRTM imagery of  
1318 Alberta and western Saskatchewan, from Ó Cofaigh et al. (2010), with ice stream  
1319 activity represented as numbered phases. The CAIS and HPIS are part of the phase 1  
1320 activity in the western half of the image; d) location map of the study area depicted in  
1321 Figure 2, showing geographical features and place names.

1322 Figure 2: Glacial geomorphology map of southern Alberta based upon the mapping of SRTM  
1323 imagery undertaken in this study: a) map of landforms with genetic classifications; b)  
1324 map of landforms annotated with place names and the locations of Figures 4-7 & 9-11,  
1325 the transverse ridge sets and topographic cross profiles A-E (see Fig. 8).

1326 Figure 3: Flow-sets reconstructed from glacial lineations. Lineations were grouped into flow  
1327 sets based primarily on their orientation but also their proximity and location (Clark  
1328 1999). Hfs\_1-5 relate to the High Plains Ice Stream and CAfs\_1 & 2 relate to the  
1329 Central Alberta Ice Stream.

1330 Figure 4: SRTM data of transverse ridges situated along the HPIS trunk (TR\_1). Note the  
1331 streamlined features that make up Hfs\_5 to the right of the image and the esker network  
1332 in the bottom right corner.

1333 Figure 5: SRTM data of large lobate ridge situated along the CAIS. The Bow River flows  
1334 through the centre of the image and the Oldman River along the bottom. Also shown  
1335 are TR\_6, TR\_7 and TR\_8, and an esker network situated to the right centre of the  
1336 image.

1337 Figure 6: SRTM data of the western section of transverse ridges that cross the entire CAIS  
1338 (TR\_6, Fig. 2).

1339 Figure 7: SRTM data of the sequence of ridges in the south eastern corner of Alberta (TR\_10).  
1340 Note the lineations situated just down ice of the ridges (CAfs\_2) and the smooth flat  
1341 topography in the north west corner representing Pakowki Lake.

1342 Figure 8: Topographic profiles taken from SRTM data (see Figure 2 for location) across the  
1343 study area: A) long profile of the bed of the CAIS; B) transverse profile across the beds  
1344 of the HPIS and CAIS and the McGregor and Suffield moraine belts; C) transverse  
1345 profile across the terrain traversed by the HPIS; D) ice flow parallel profile from  
1346 Pakowki Lake across the transverse ridges located on the preglacial drainage divide in  
1347 southeastern Alberta; E) transverse profile across the terrain covered by the CAIS  
1348 marginal landforms.

1349 Figure 9: Example of hummocky terrain in the McGregor Moraine: a) Landsat ETM+ image of  
1350 the moraine assemblage, with McGregor Lake visible as the flat, smooth area in the left  
1351 centre and the Little Bow and Bow rivers at the bottom and top of image respectively;  
1352 b) larger scale aerial photograph image of the hummocky terrain to the south east of  
1353 McGregor Lake, located by the box in Figure 9a.

1354 Figure 10: Flow set Hfs\_4 from SRTM data in GeoTIFF format, demonstrating the high level of  
1355 spatial coherency and a large esker indicated by white arrows.

1356 Figure 11: Glacial geomorphology map of the landforms produced at the margin of the CAIS.  
1357 Black shaded areas represent lakes and ponds, and therefore demarcate the extent of  
1358 meltwater channels/spillways and smaller scale depressions between hummocks and  
1359 ridges. Minor transverse ridge crests are depicted as black arcuate lines and major  
1360 transverse ridges by barbed lines. Flutings are represented by straight lines orientated  
1361 oblique to transverse ridges. Black circular symbols represent the largest flat-topped

1362 mounds or ice-walled lake plains. Hatched broken lines depict the margins of major  
1363 channels. The typical morphological details of the hummocky terrain, represented here  
1364 by densely spaced small scale depressions, are illustrated and summarized in Figures 16  
1365 and 17 respectively.

1366 Figure 12: Morphological characteristics of transverse ridge sets within the CAIS marginal  
1367 zone. Type 1 ridges are symmetrical in form and have smoothed summits separated by  
1368 partially water filled depressions (the dotted line represents the crest of the ridge). Type  
1369 2 ridges have sharper crests and vary in wavelength. Type 3 ridges are composed of  
1370 numerous strongly orientated hummocks and ridges separated by partially water-filled  
1371 depressions with occasional hummocks.

1372 Figure 13: Transverse ridge sets Types 1 and 2 located in the SE corner of the CAIS marginal  
1373 Zone and overprinted by lineations. Individual ridge types are identified in a) and c).

1374 Figure 14: Type 2 and 3 ridges: a) aerial photograph mosaic and b) geomorphology map of  
1375 Type 2 transverse ridges, located to the east of Pakowki Lake (see Fig. 11). The  
1376 northwest corner of the image and map shows Type 3 ridges blending into Type 1  
1377 hummocky terrain; c) Type 2 ridges located 5km to the north of image in a) and b)  
1378 (centre of image is 49° 23.5' N and 110° 44' W); d) and e) ground views showing the  
1379 parallel, smooth crested and discontinuous nature of Type 3 transverse ridges.

1380 Figure 15: Type 3 transverse ridges located in the central portion of the CAIS marginal zone  
1381 (see Fig. 11). Individual hummocks and ridge segments are arranged contiguous with  
1382 each other, giving rise to linearity in the landform record: a) area located between  
1383 Verdigris Coulee and the Milk River; b) area located south of Crow Indian Lake and  
1384 Etzikom Coulee.

1385 Figure 16: Examples of Type 1 and 2 hummocks: a) predominantly Type 1 hummocks north of  
1386 Pakowki Lake (centre of image is 49° 28' N & 111° 09' W); b) predominantly Type 1  
1387 hummocks north of Crow Indian Lake (centre of image is 49° 26' N & 111° 39' W; c)  
1388 predominantly Type 2 hummocks north of Pakowki Lake (centre of image is 49° 28' N  
1389 & 110° 54.5' W (see also Fig. 21a).

1390 Figure 17: Morphological characteristics of hummocks within the "Lethbridge Moraine"

1391 sequence. The dimensions reflect the largest features in each class.

1392 Figure 18: Examples of hummocky terrain in an aerial photograph mosaic of the area to the east  
1393 of Del Bonita, showing the juxtaposition of all 3 hummock types. Also within the image  
1394 are the ridges (highlighted by the white arrows) that run through some hummocky  
1395 terrain bands. Note that here they run between Type 2 hummocks and in places  
1396 constitute parts of the hummock rims (centre of image is 49° 04.5' N & 112° 37' W).

1397 Figure 19: Details of meltwater channels and spillways: a) view eastwards along Etzikom  
1398 Coulée; b) aerial photograph extract of the network of channels to the north of Chin  
1399 Coulée (centre of image is 49° 37.5' N & 111° 38' W); c) ground view of shallow  
1400 channels in the aerial photograph.

1401 Figure 20: Reconstructed palaeoglaciology of the southern Alberta ice streams/lobes during  
1402 deglaciation based on published chronologies (Westgate 1968; Clayton & Moran 1982;  
1403 Dyke & Prest 1987; Kulig 1996) and constrained by geomorphology presented in this  
1404 paper: a) Pakowki advance limit around 14-13.5ka BP; b) Etzikom limit located along  
1405 the Lethbridge moraine at around 12.3ka BP; c) Oldman limit at approximately 12ka  
1406 BP; d) Vauxhall limit tentatively dated at around 11.7ka BP. The reconstructed position  
1407 of the HPIS is based solely on geomorphology and so the chronology of the marginal  
1408 positions is speculative. The proglacial lakes are minimal reconstructions based upon  
1409 previous work by Westgate (1968), Shetsen (1987) and Evans (2000).

1410 Figure 21: Ice stream marginal end moraine zonation/landsystem model: a) aerial photograph  
1411 mosaic of the area to the north of Pakowki Lake, showing the gradation from Type 2  
1412 ridges in the southeast corner of the image, through Type 1 to Type 3 and then to  
1413 hummocky moraine with intermittent bands of Type 3 in a northwesterly direction; b)  
1414 conceptual model of the continuum of landforms created by terrestrial ice stream  
1415 margins based primarily on the CAIS case study. Active recessional push moraines  
1416 (Types 1 & 2 ridges) document temperate snout conditions during which the lobate ice  
1417 stream margin responded to seasonal climate drivers. Fluted terrain containing well  
1418 developed esker networks were active at these times. Hummocky moraine arcs  
1419 containing ice-walled lake plains, kame mounds and short esker segments represent

1420 cold-based lobe margins when controlled moraine was constructed by widespread  
1421 freeze-on and stacking of basal debris rich ice sequences. Between these two ends of the  
1422 landform continuum lie moraine arcs composed of aligned hummocks and ponds (Type  
1423 3 ridges), indicative of polythermal margins that probably responded to intermediate  
1424 timescale (decadal) climate drivers. During later stages of recession, the margin of the  
1425 CAIS underwent surging, as documented by the surging landsystem signature in areas  
1426 to the north of the study area by Evans et al. (1999, 2008).  
1427

**Table 1:** Data showing the specific characteristics of the flow-sets, which in turn act as a device to help differentiate between particular flow sets.

Flow set	Number of lineations	Mean length (km)	Mean direction (°)	Flow set area (km <sup>2</sup> )
Hfs_1	81	1.56	224	702
Hfs_2	110	3.42	141	3162
Hfs_3	66	2.34	119	1631
Hfs_4	260	3.58	170	4150
Hfs_5	147	3.52	160	5964
CAfs_1	30	10	182	6154
CAfs_2	20	4.17	118	849



Table 2: Palaeo-ice stream criteria of the CAIS and HPIS compared to the schema proposed by Stokes and Clark (1999, 2001).

<b>Ice Stream Geomorphological Criteria (Stokes and Clark, 1999, 2001)</b>	<b>CAIS</b>	<b>HPIS</b>
1. Characteristic shape and Dimensions	YES	YES
2. Highly convergent flow patterns	Unknown	NO
3. Highly attenuated bedforms	YES	YES
4. Boothia type erratic dispersal train	YES	YES
5. Abrupt lateral margins	YES	NO
6. Ice stream marginal moraines	YES	YES
7. Glaciotectonic and geotechnical evidence of pervasively deformed till	YES	YES
8. Submarine till delta or sediment fan (trough-mouth fan)	NA*	NA*

\* large arcuate assemblages of moraines and thick, complex sequences of tills and associated glacial sediments reported at the former HPIS and CAIS margins by Evans et al. (2008, 2012) are likely to be the terrestrial equivalents of trough-mouth fans.

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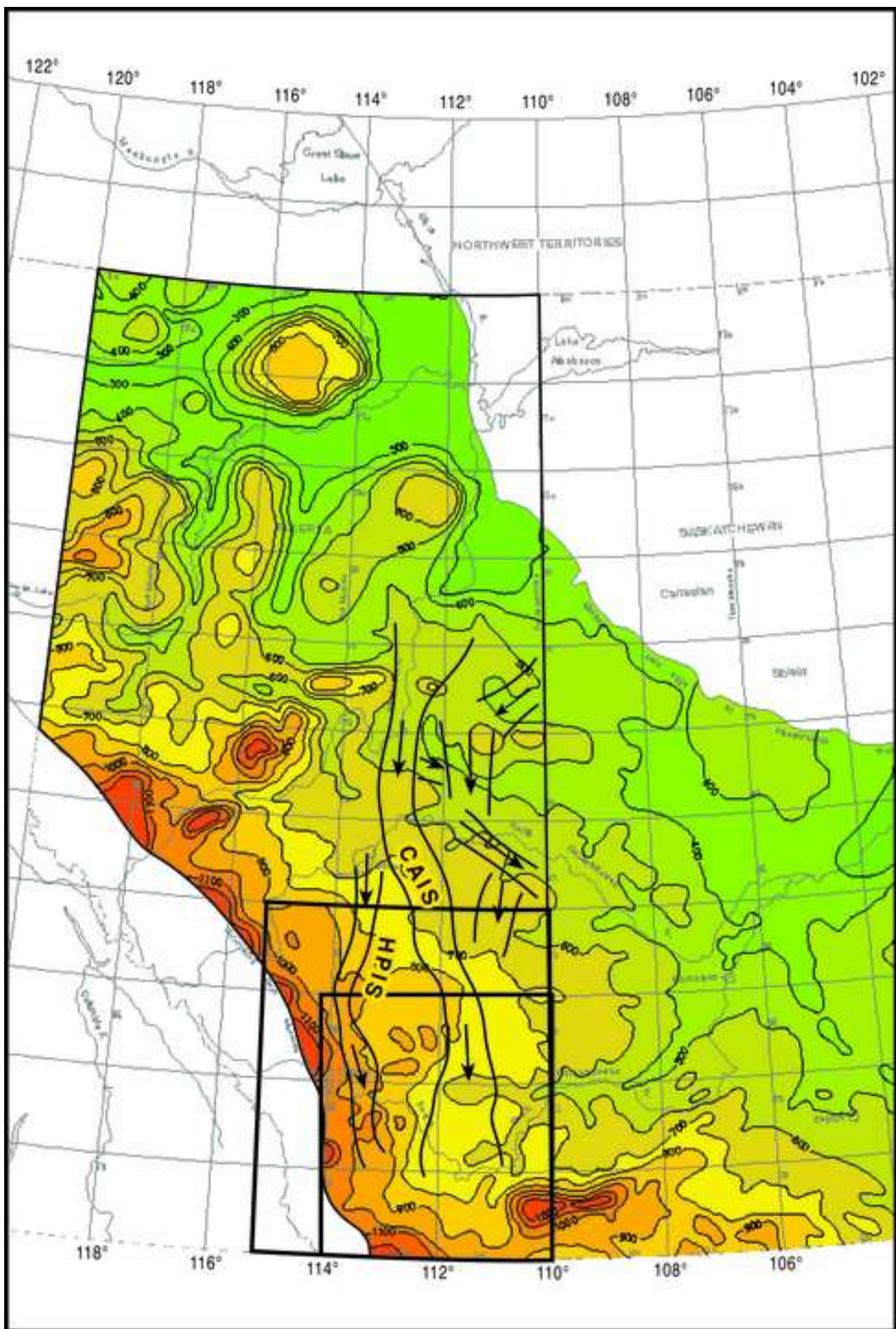




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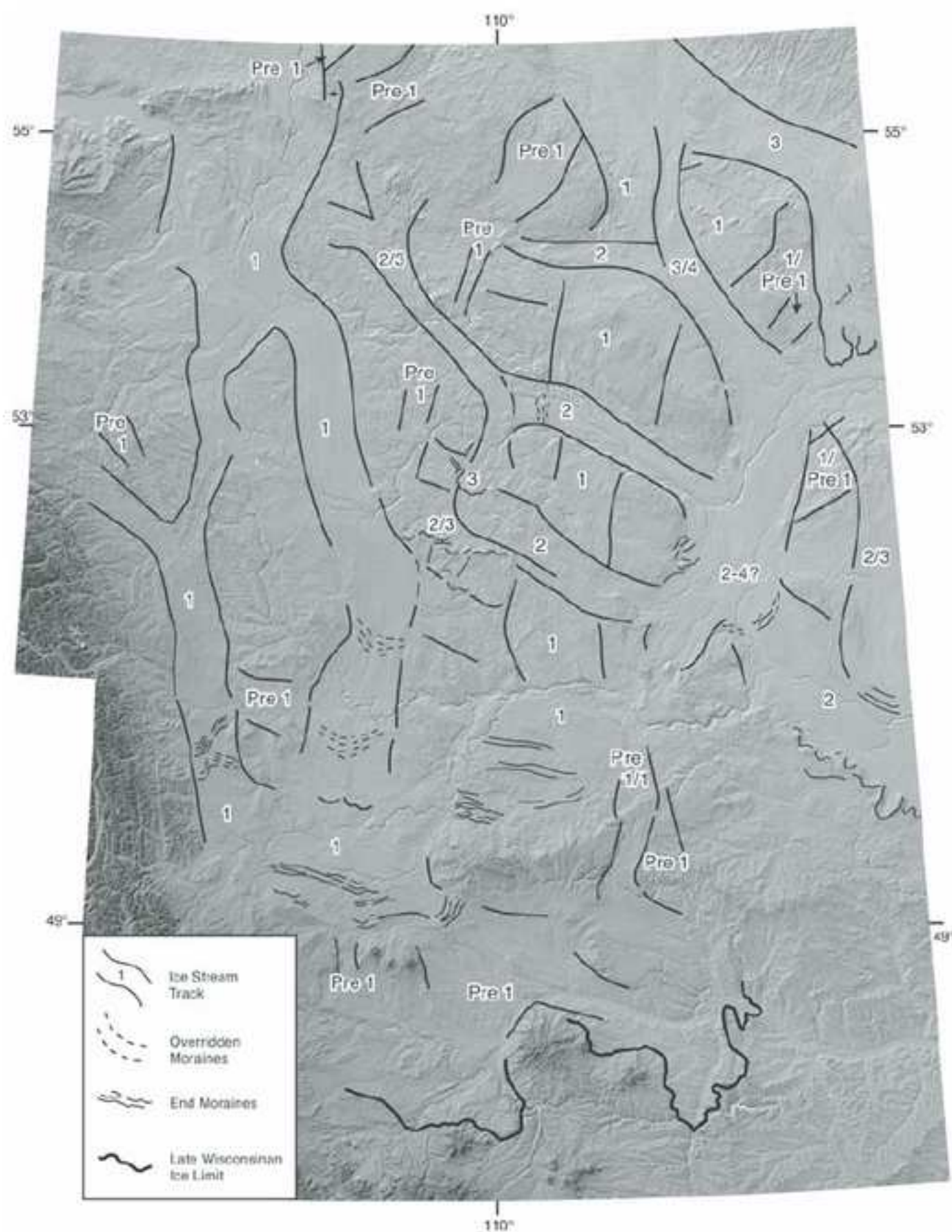


Figure 2a

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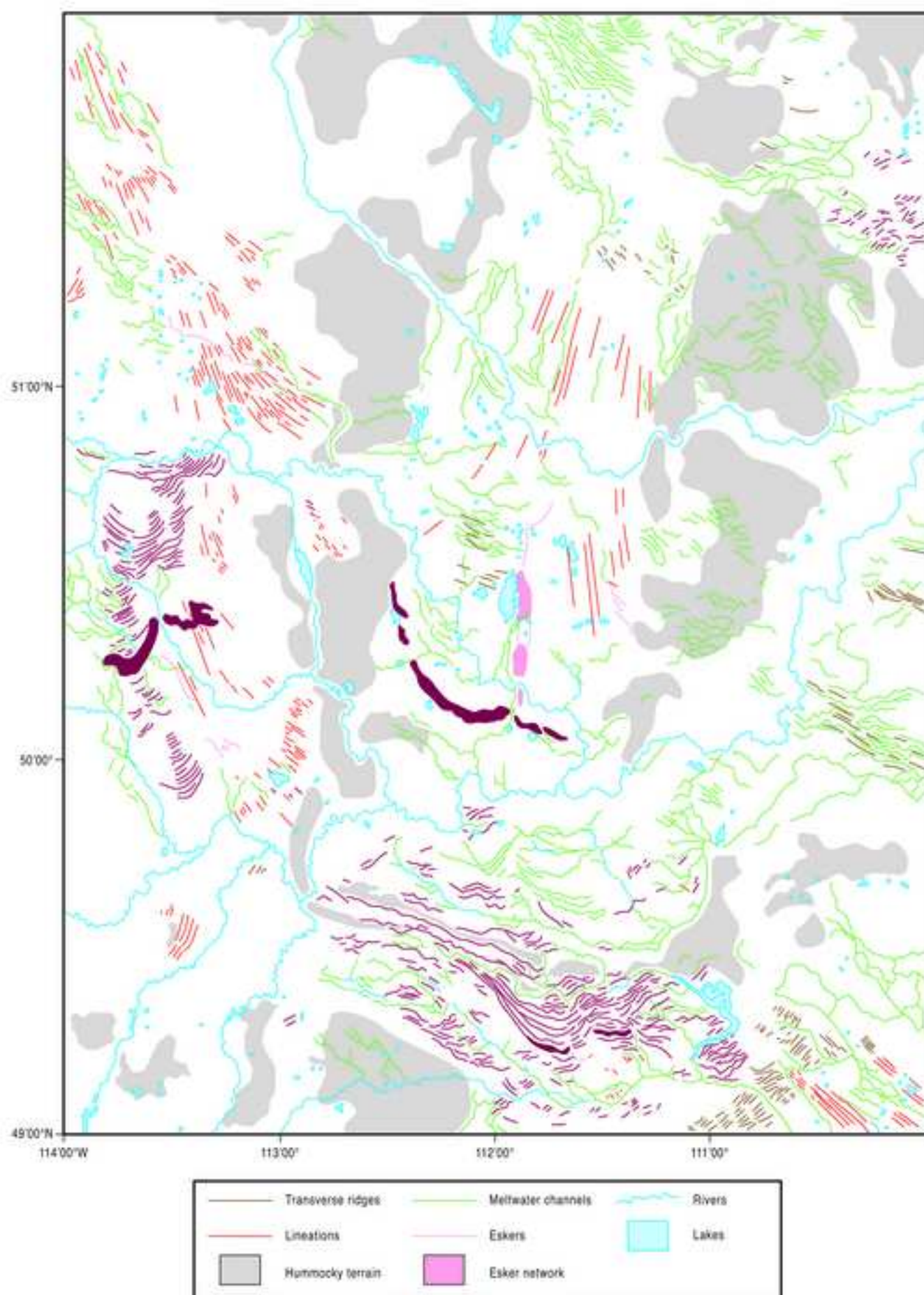




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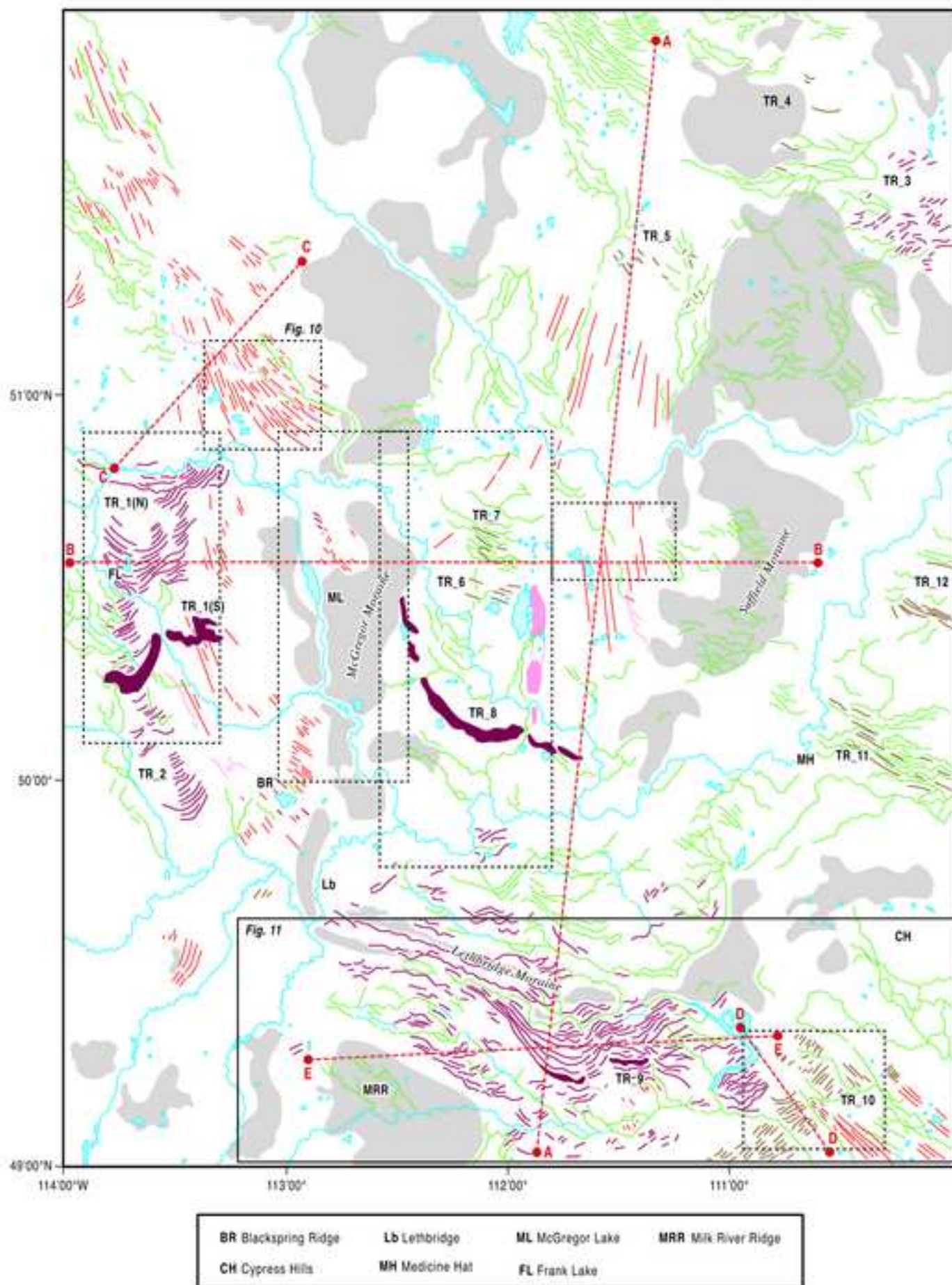




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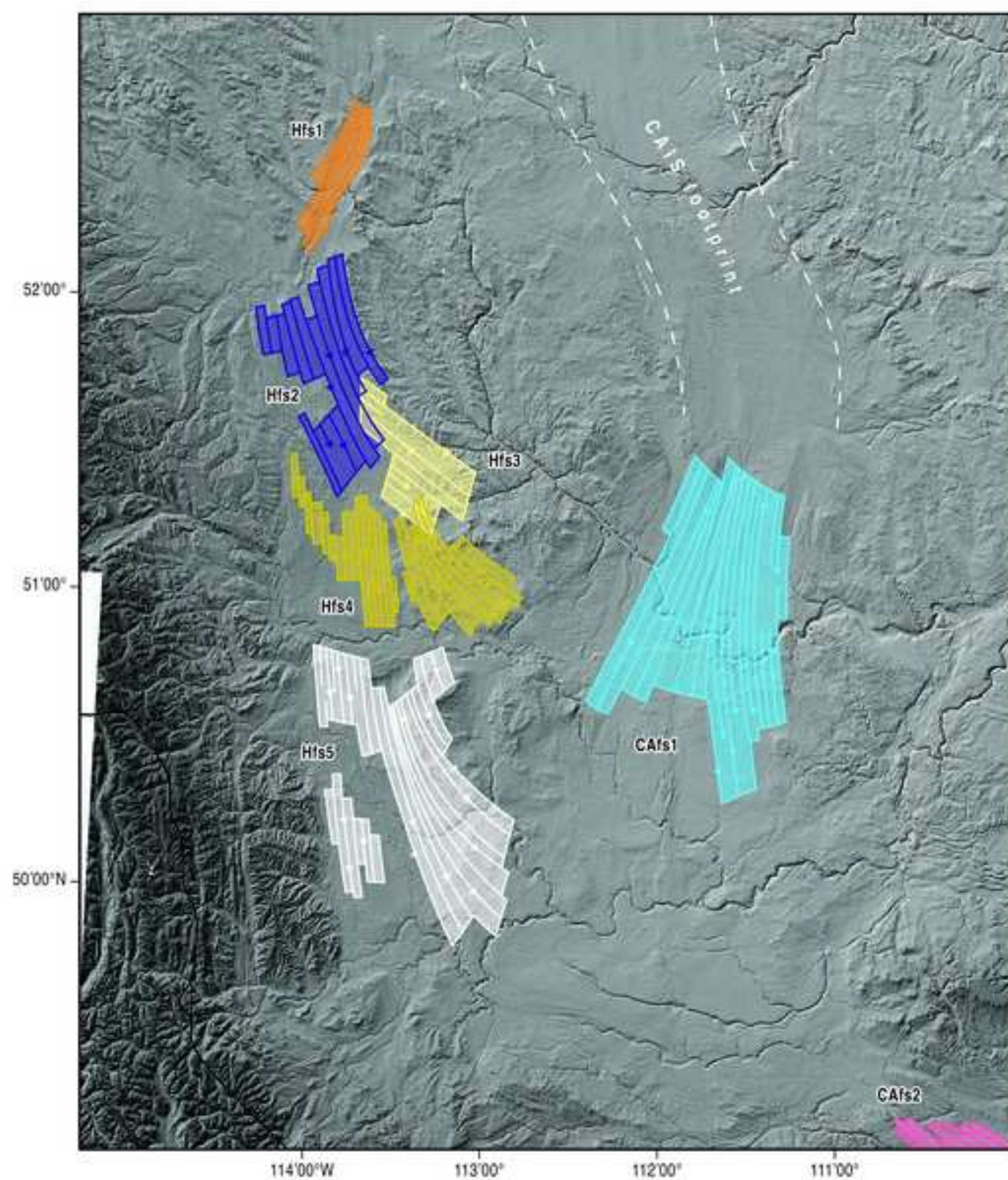


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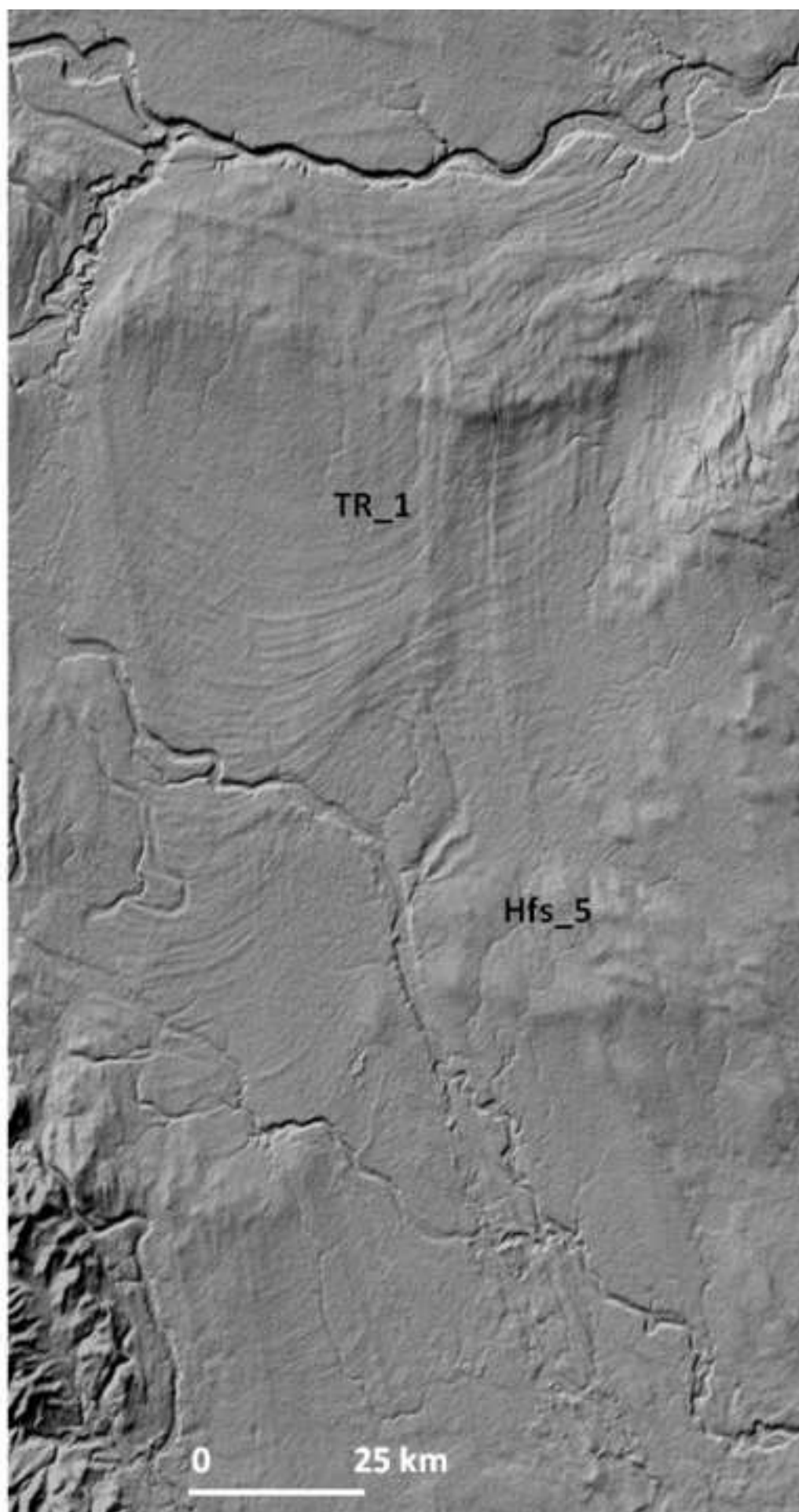




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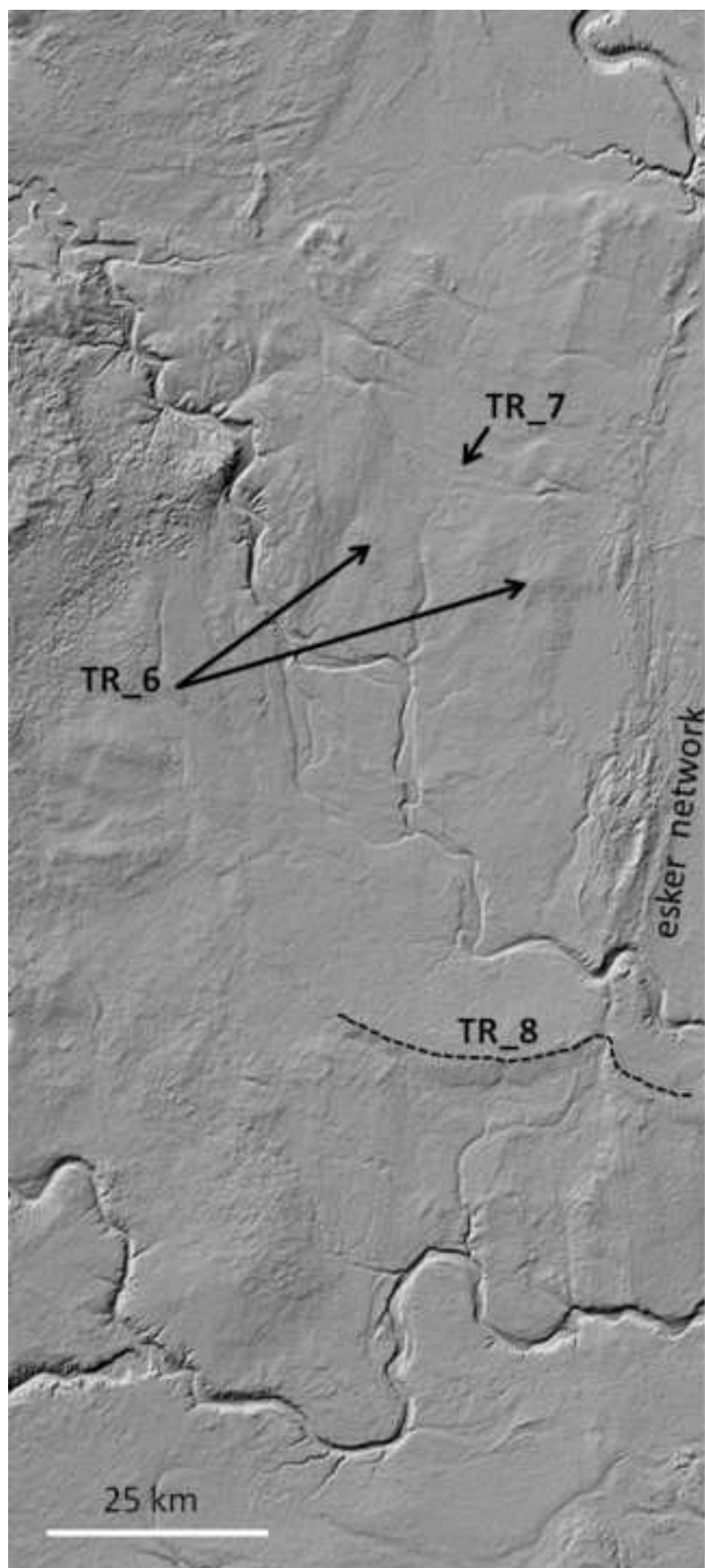


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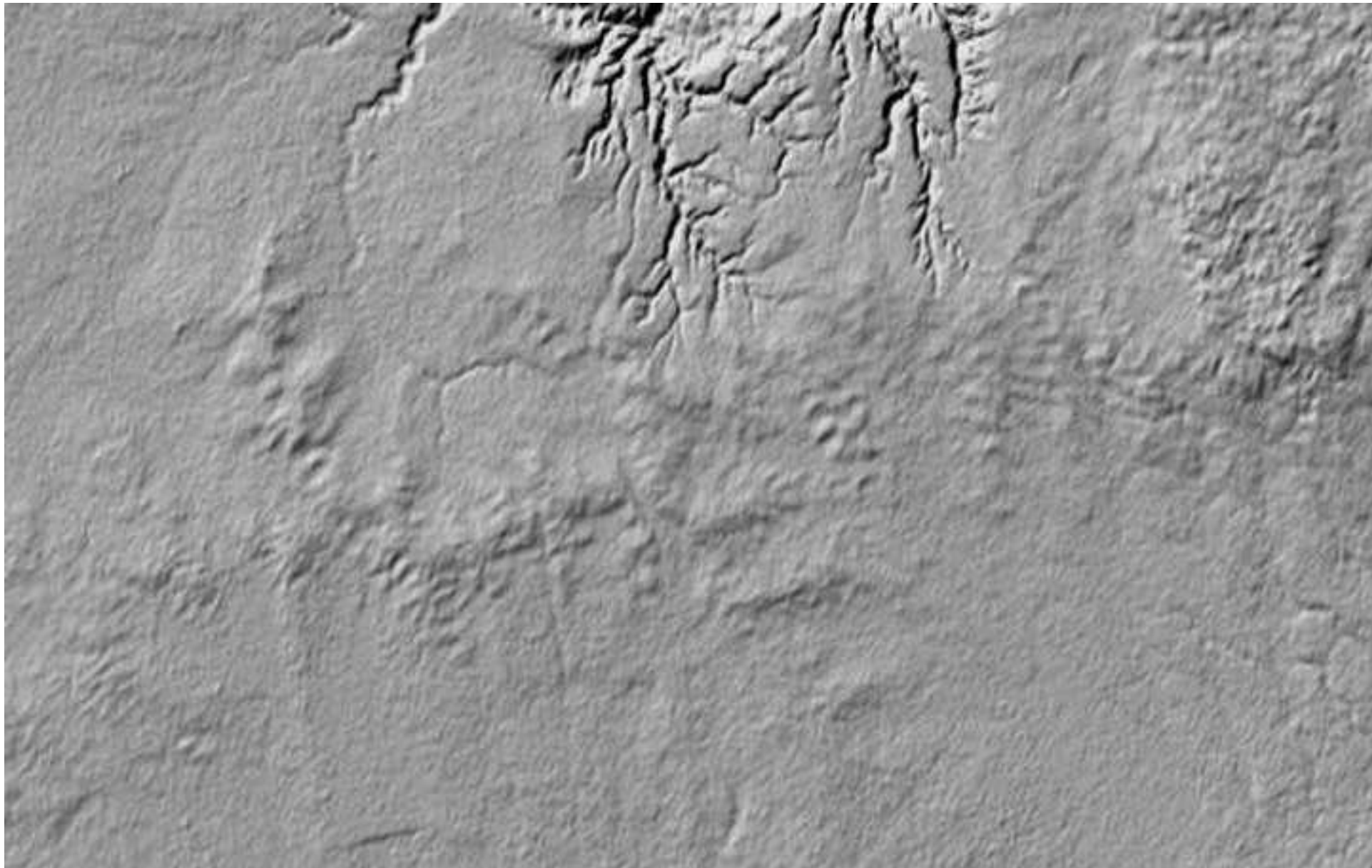
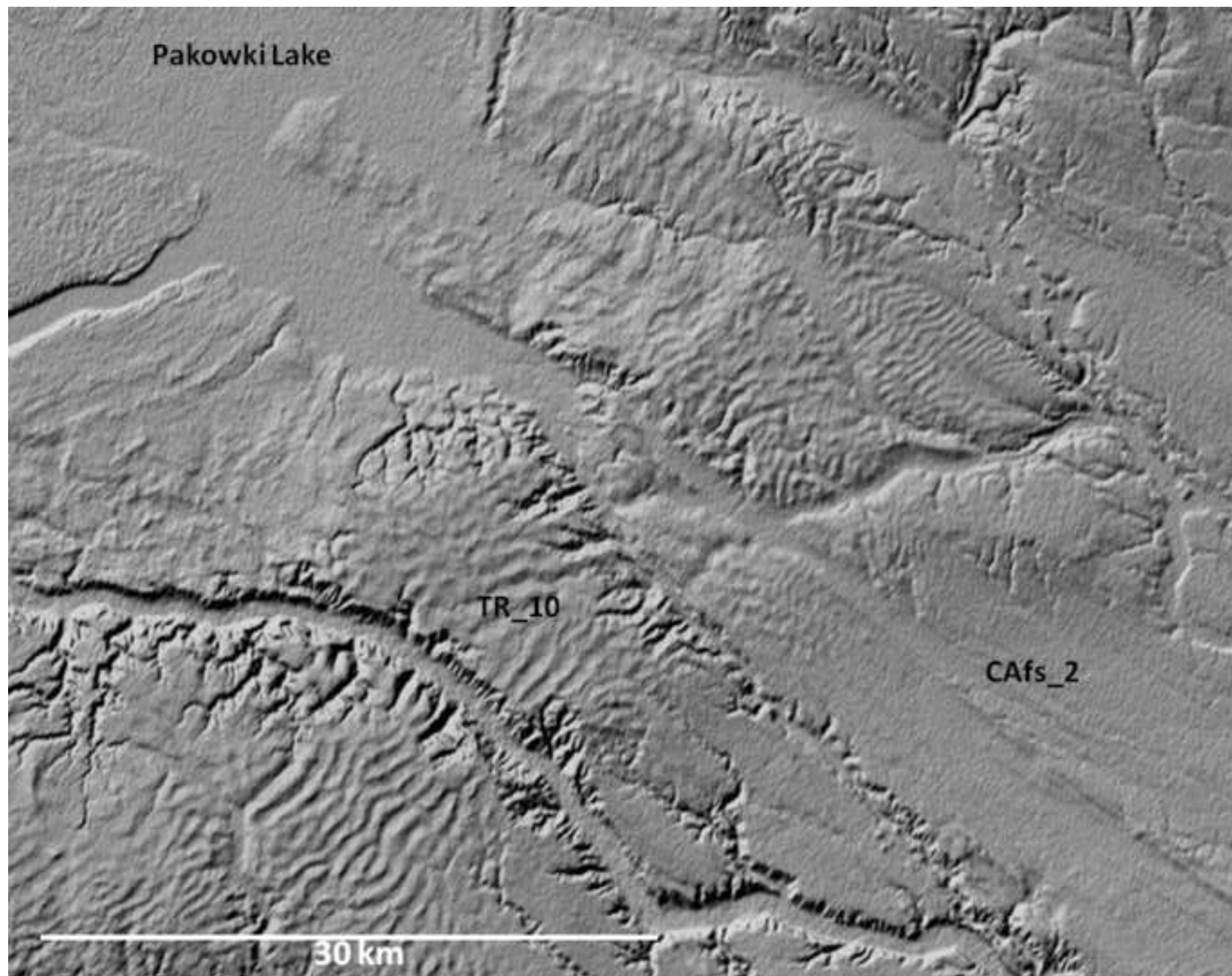




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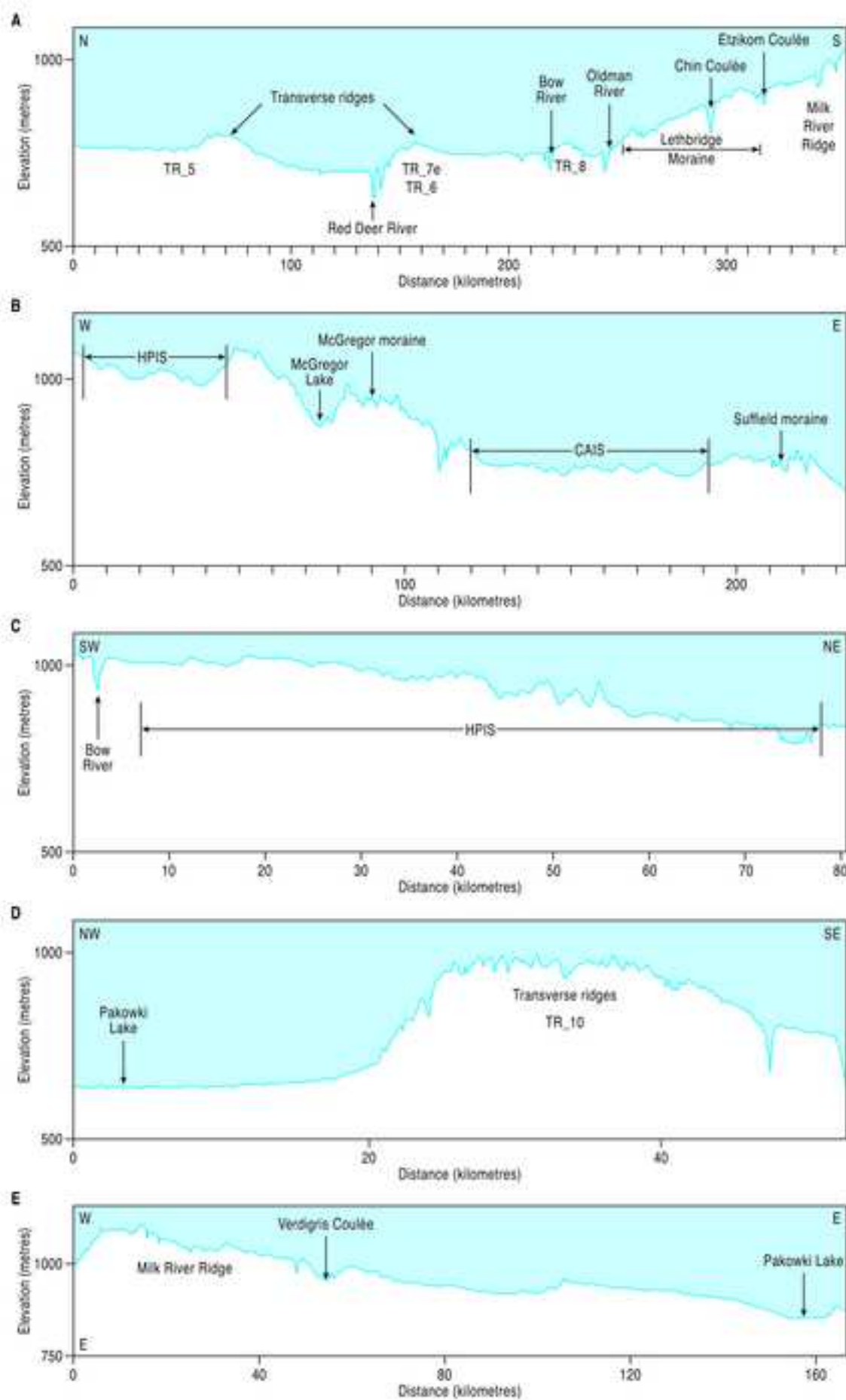


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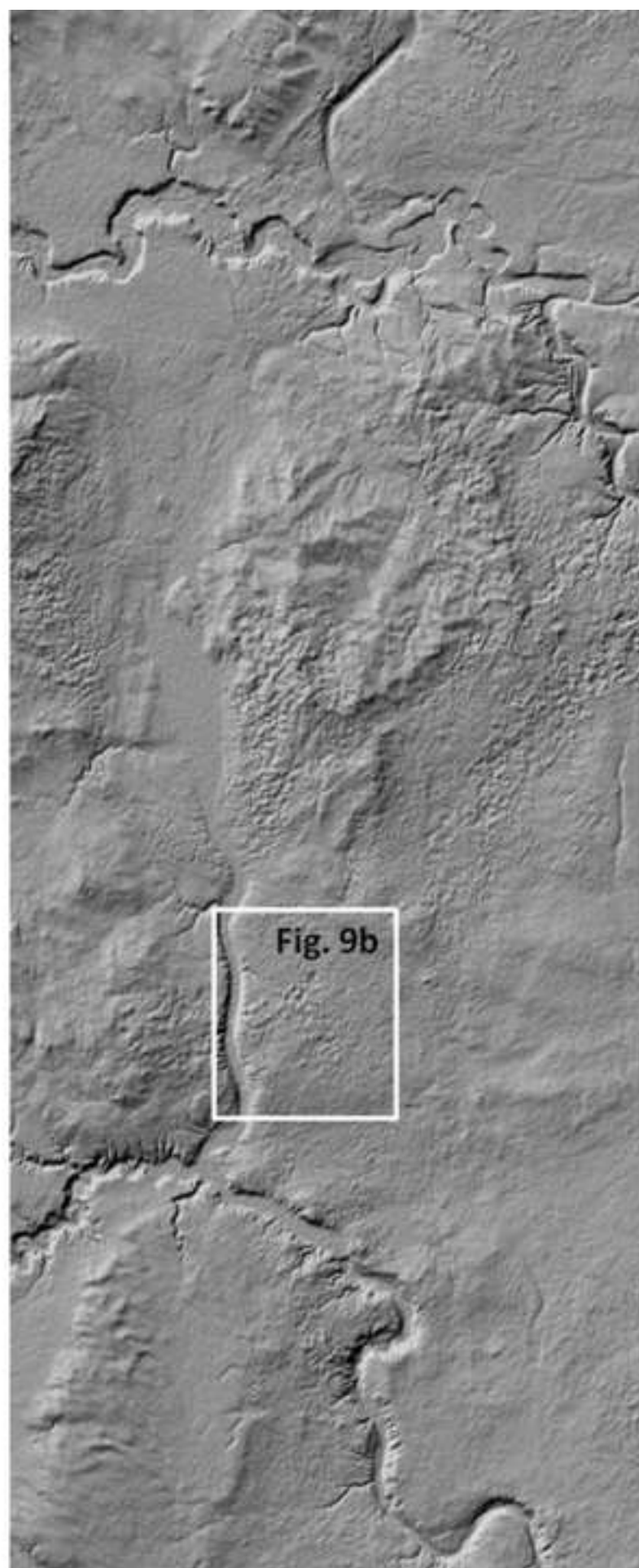




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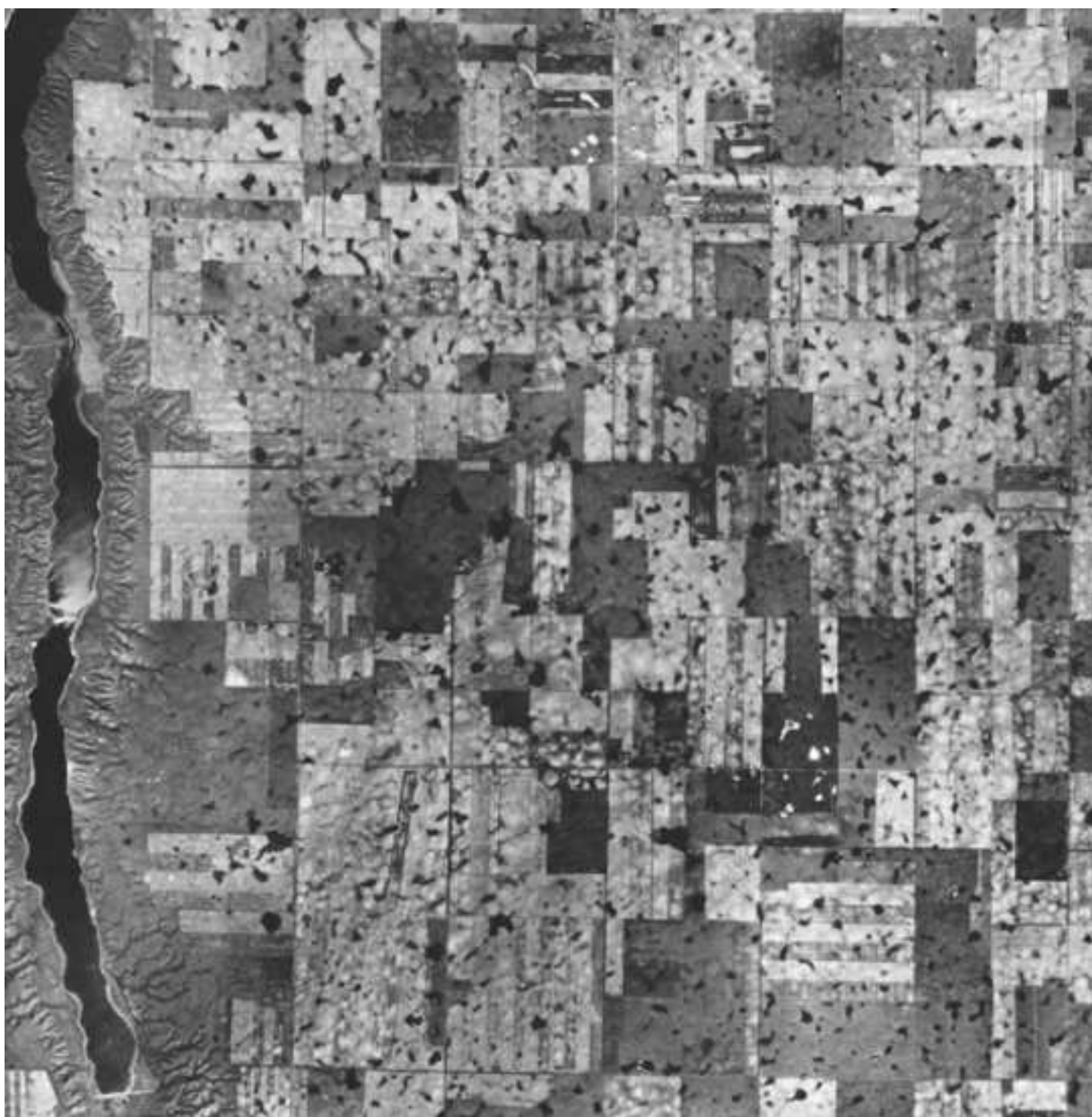
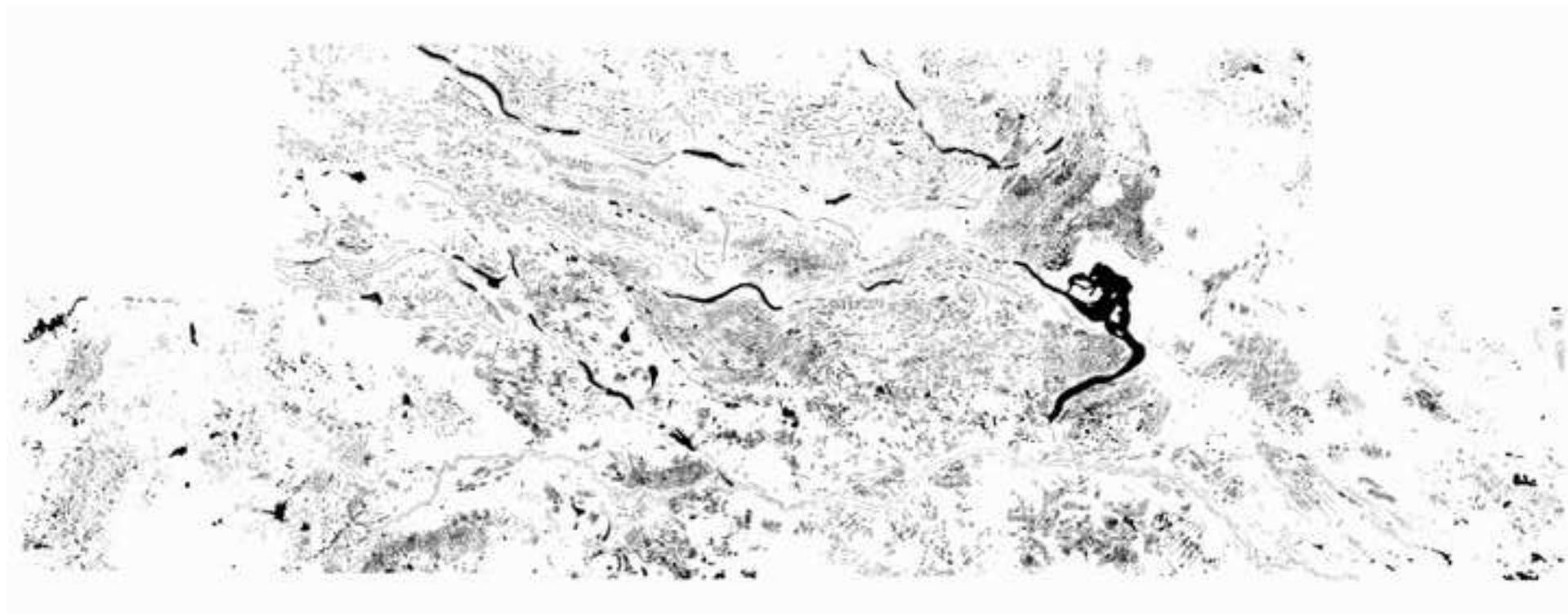


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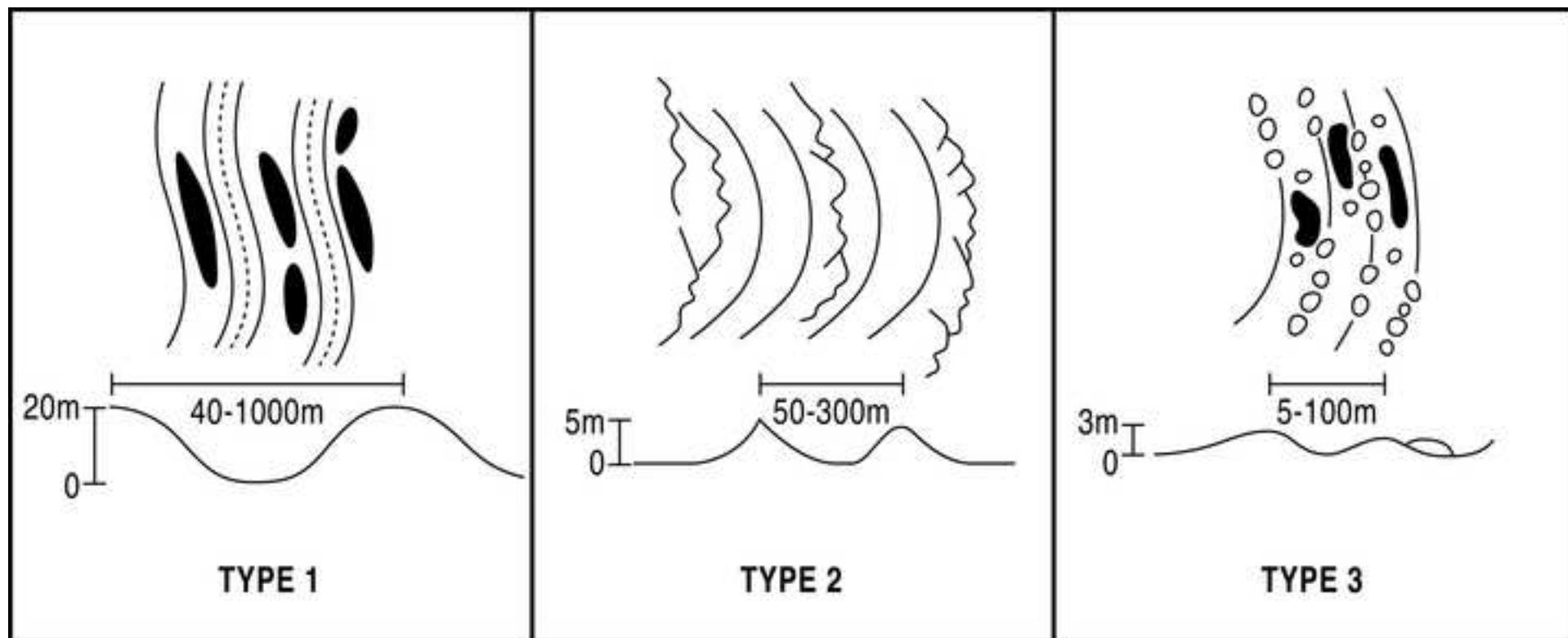


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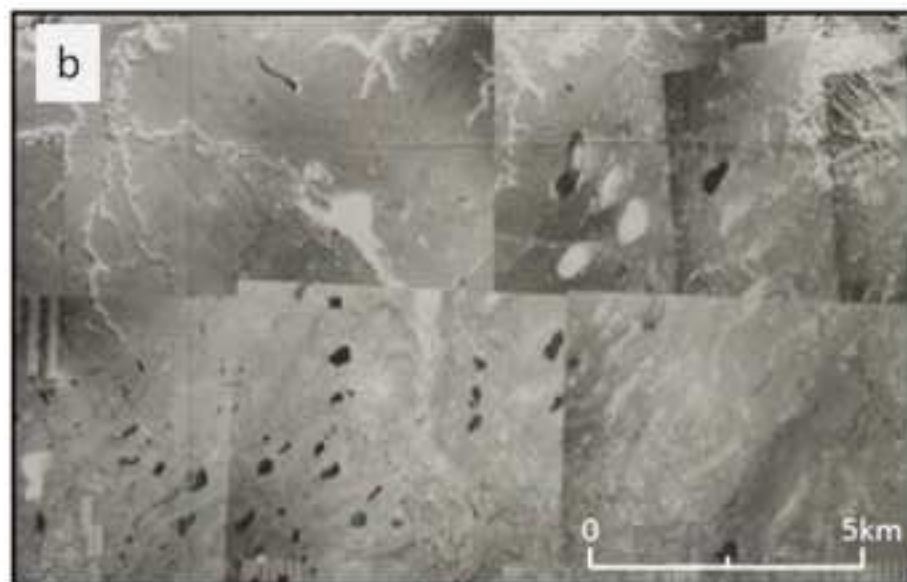
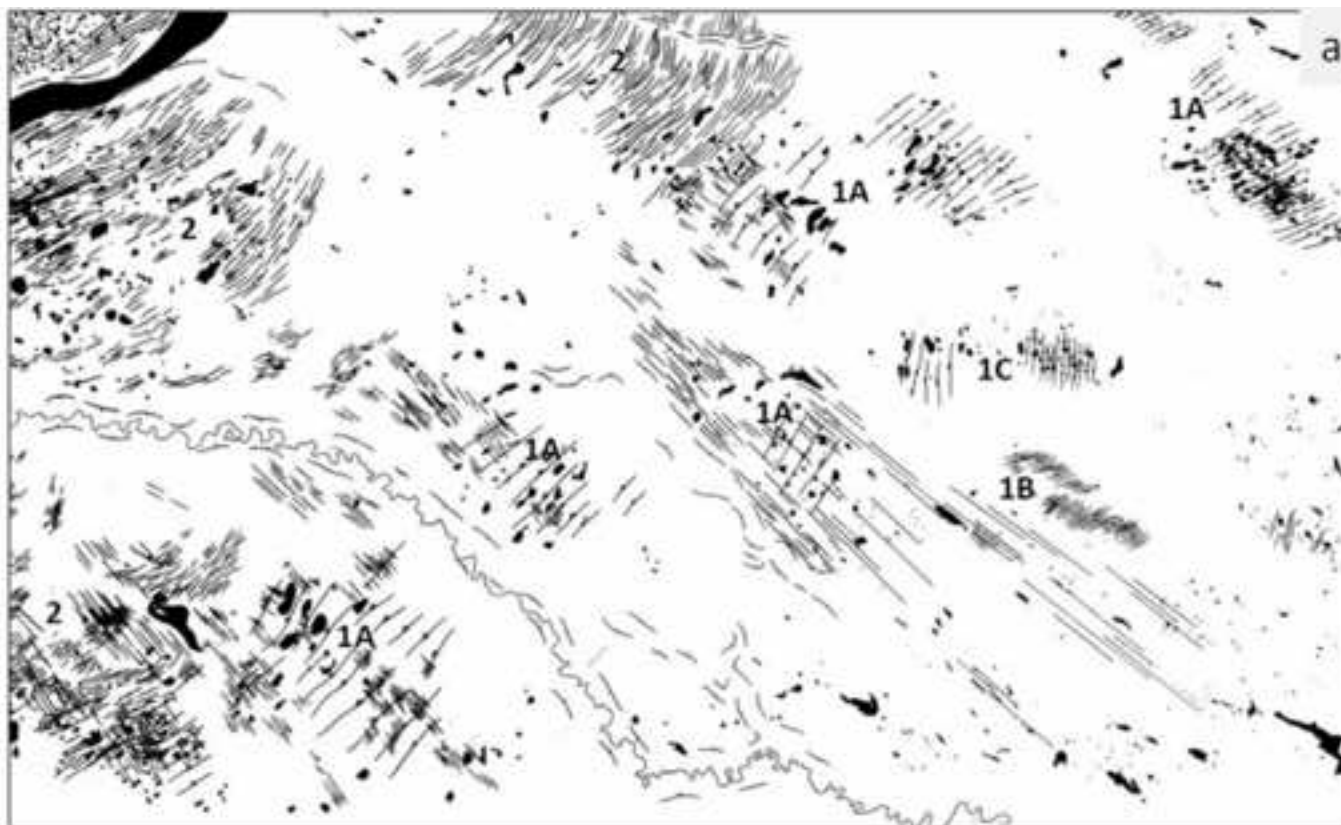


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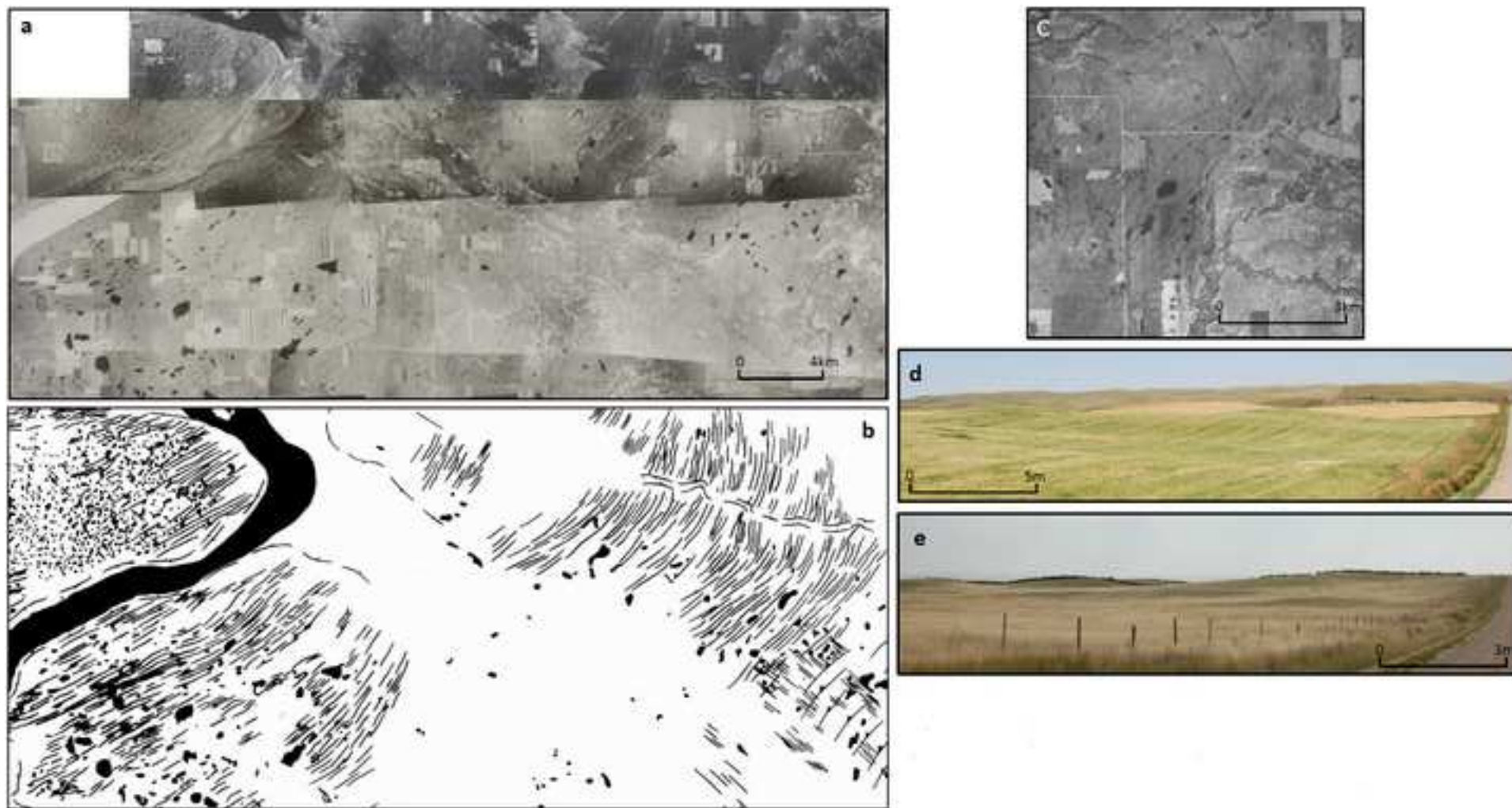




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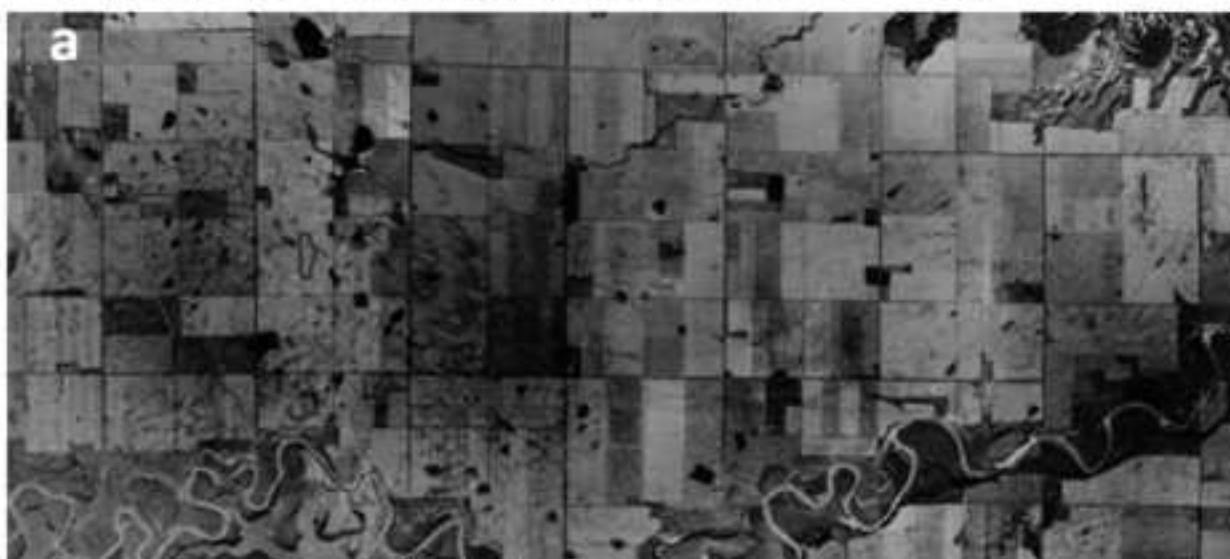
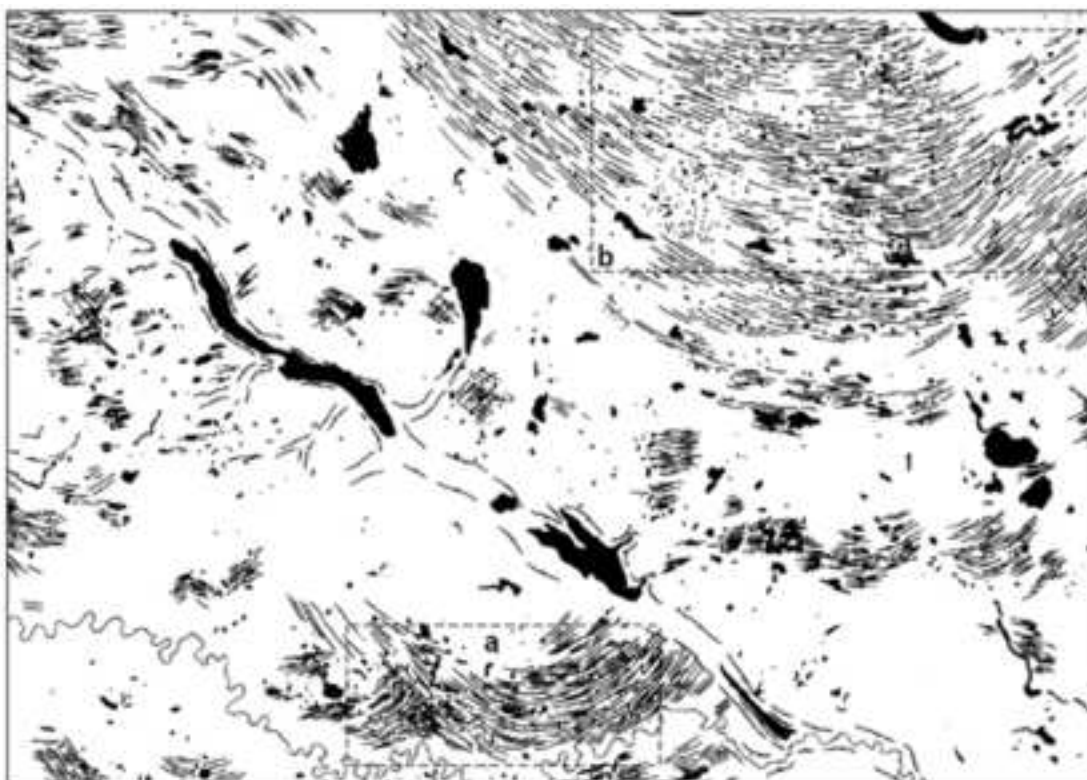


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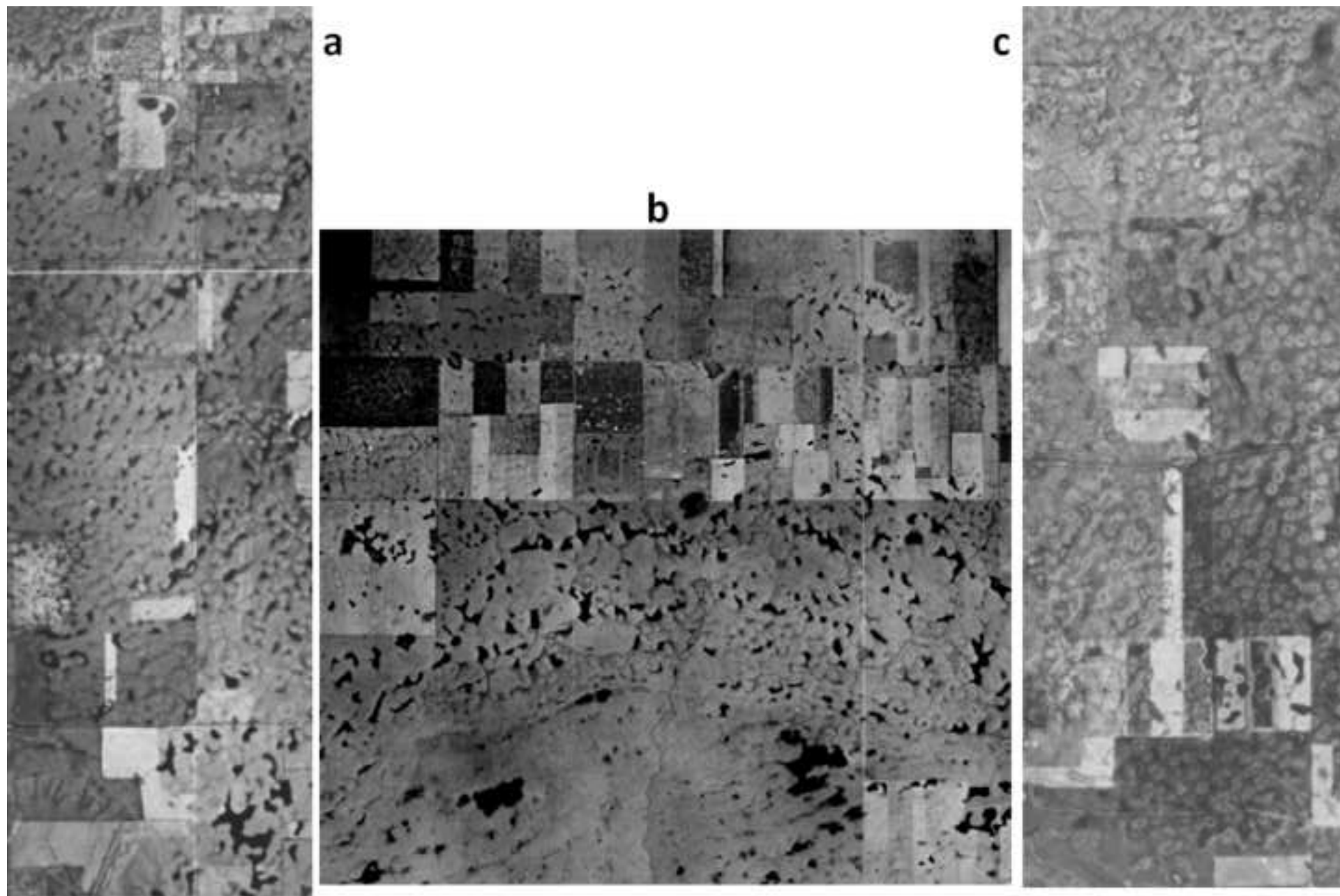


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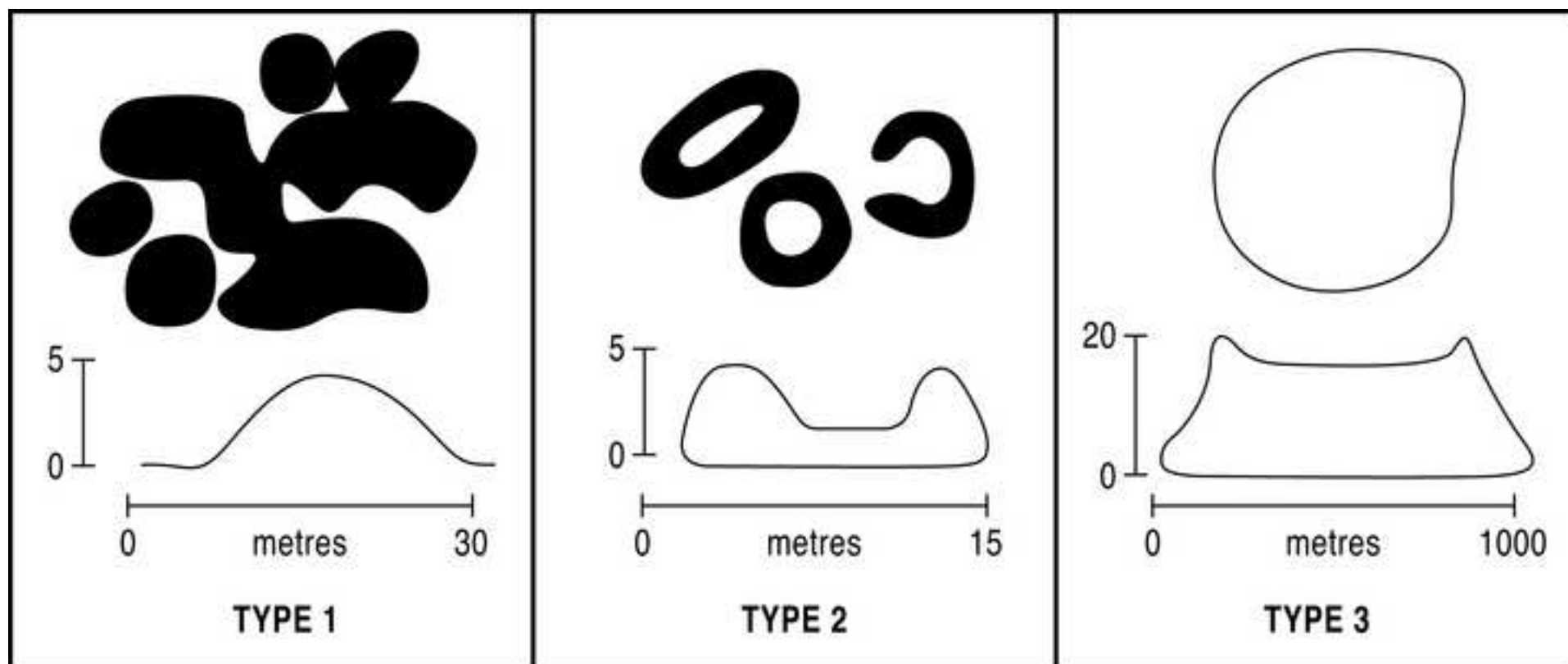




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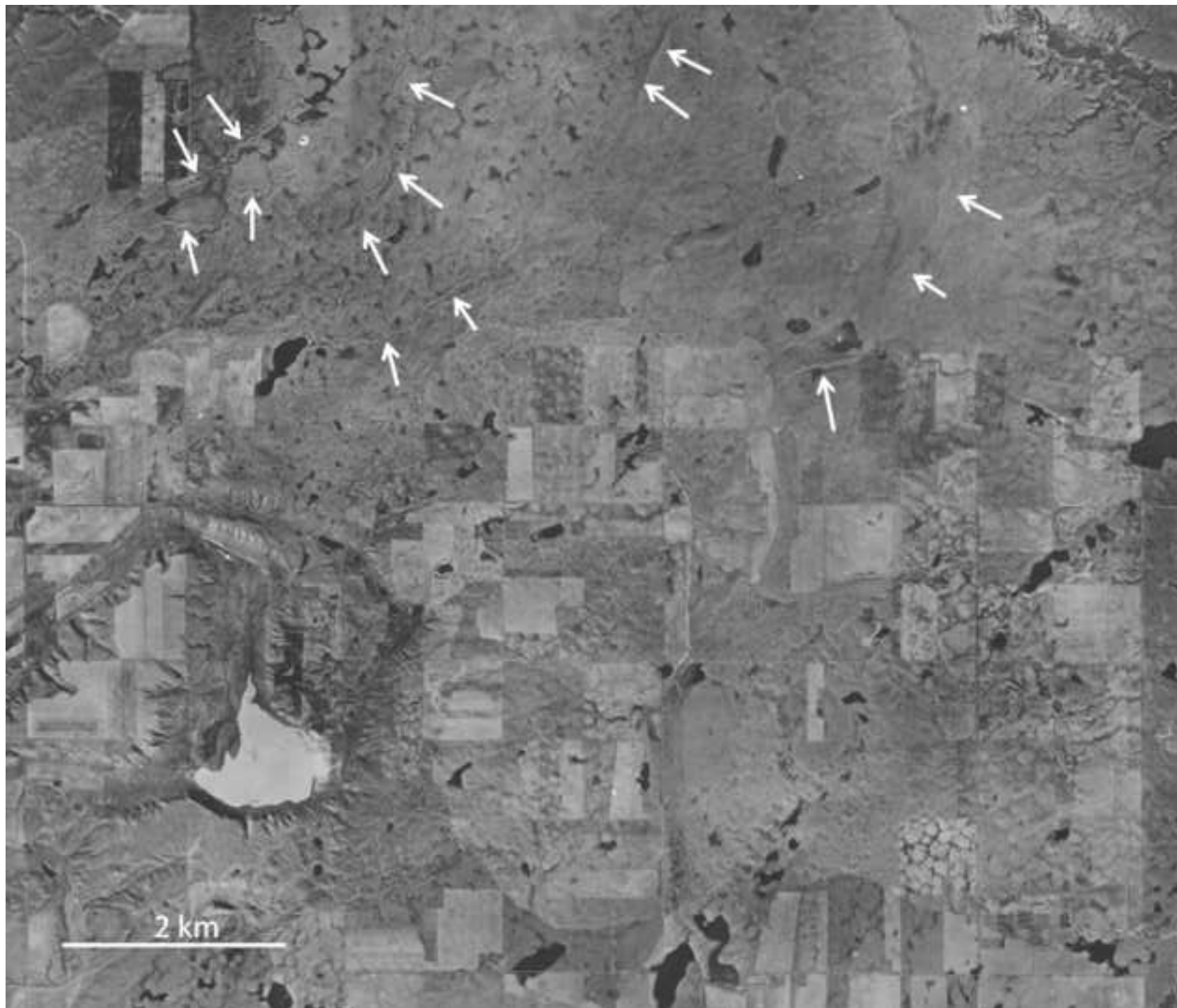


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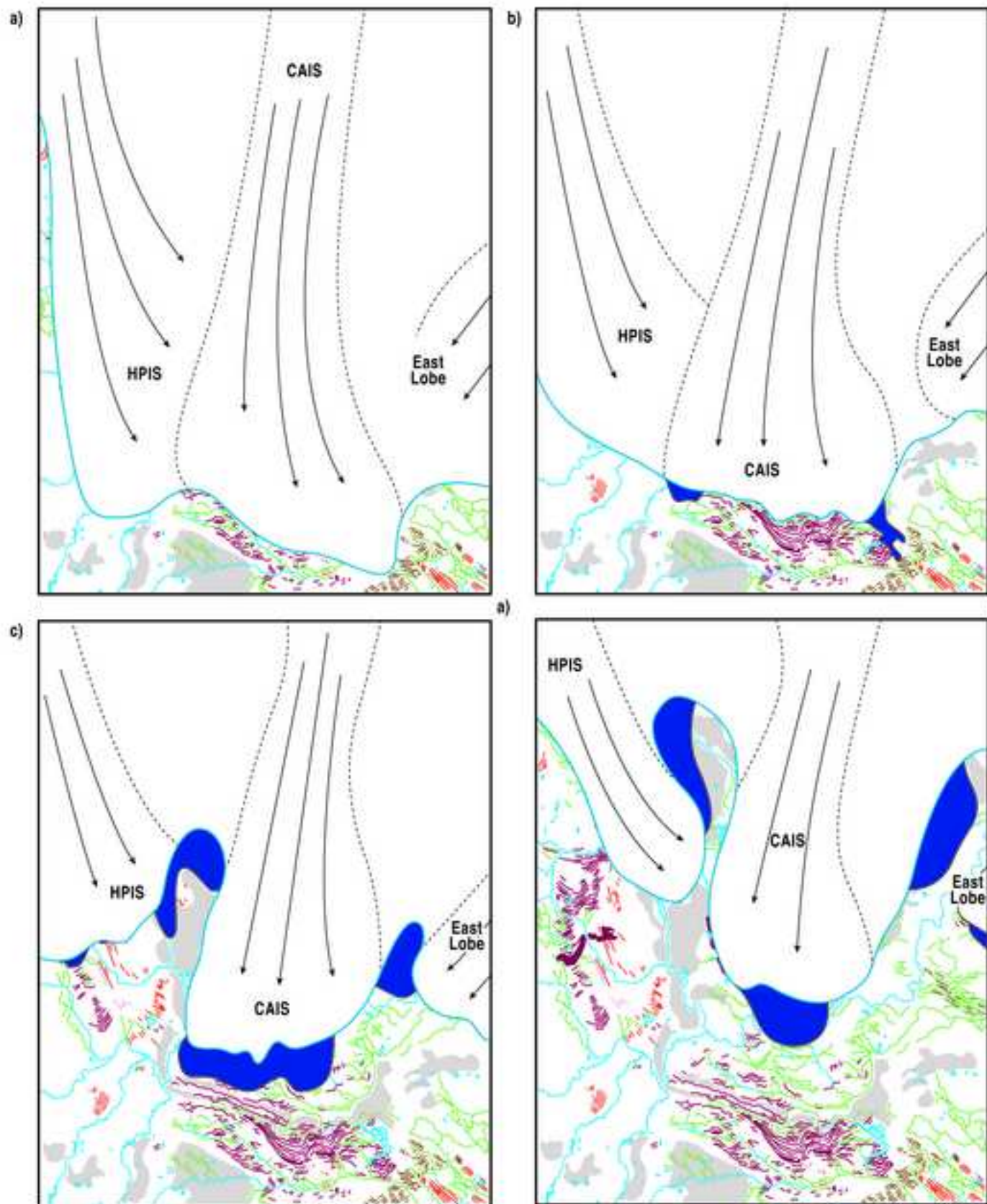


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